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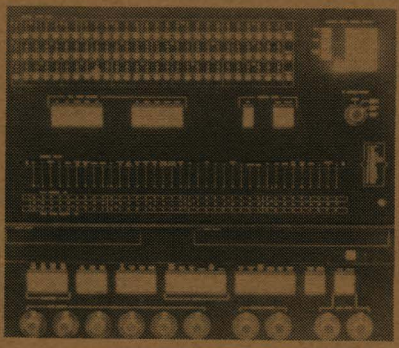

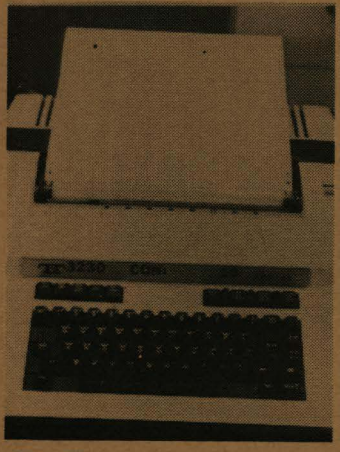

COMPUTERS AND ARCHIVES

GEORGIA ARCHIVE

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COMPUTERS, ARCHIVAL ADMINISTRATION, AND THE CHALLENGES OF THE 1980s[1]

Richard M. Kesner

A mere decade ago, it would have been difficult to conceive of the situation which now confronts the archival profession. In the late 1960's and early 1970's, only a few federal and state agencies collected, preserved, and serviced machine-readable records. In the last ten years the number of agencies serving as electronic data processing (EDP) archives has significantly increased.[2] While the management of machine-readable records remains principally in the hands of a small group of specialists, there are now encouraging signs of change, or at least of the growing awareness regarding the problems faced by the archival profession as a whole in managing these modern documents.[3] Similarly, we have witnessed the emergence of automated systems, such as SPINDEX and SELGEM, specifically structured for the indexing and retrieval needs of archives and records management programs, as well as the persistent efforts of the MARC Development Office of the Library of Congress to design a usable MARC manuscript format.[4]

To date, progress in both the establishment of EDP archives and of archival automated systems has been slow, and certainly none of the recent events described above could be cited as harbingers of a new era in which automated techniques and records would serve as overriding, or indeed predominant, professional issues. And yet, in the last five years, archivists have become increasingly aware of the potential benefits of automation in improving archival operations and services and have witnessed the advent of machine-readable records as an important and even ubiquitous documentary source.

What has caused this change among archivists? What do archivists need to do as a profession to prepare for the cybernetic age? And what does the future have in store for archivists? A three-fold model illustrating the development of the role of computer technology in the archival profession best answers these questions.

In the first stage, which is largely complete, archivists accepted the need to deal with the problems of collecting, preserving, and accessing EDP records and took up the challenge of adapting EDP capabilities to the requirements of the profession. The second stage of the model--that of education--is the present concern of archivists. Finally, archivists must move from the present period of study, experimentation, and evaluation to the third stage of application, an era of full implementation of automated techniques and technology.

In the early 1970's, the trend within the archival profession towards an acceptance of EDP applications in archives was far from apparent. By the end of the decade, however, this situation had changed dramatically. A poll of the Society of American Archivists (SAA) taken in December, 1979, clearly demonstrated a shift within the profession regarding the role and potential significance of the computer. When asked to list the five most pressing problems that they as archivists anticipated in the next five years, forty-five percent of those polled listed technological change as the major challenge in the years ahead.[5] This dramatic shift of interest towards automation has also manifested itself in the offerings of professional workshops and meetings. The demand for more comprehensive training in the management of machine-readable records and automated techniques speaks persuasively for the argument that, as a whole, archivists are becoming more aware of and are accepting these trends within the profession.

Many factors have contributed to this remarkable transformation. First and foremost among these is the growing use of computers in our daily lives and the concomitant growth in the quantity and diversity of machine-readable records generated by modern society at the expense of more traditional paper records. Government offices at all levels and business concerns, for example, annually automate a greater percentage of their records, dictating the establishment of EDP tape libraries and the employment of computer-generated micrographic records in any number of different administrative operations. Schools now offer training classes for grade-school children in computers, and even out-of-school adults cannot entirely avoid a certain degree of exposure as their employers automate. Greater contact with computers has led in turn to a diminution in popular resistance and has encouraged a greater awareness of automation and its potential.

These developments have had a special impact upon archivists, altering our perceptions of our responsibilities. As business and government--and to a lesser extent universities--turn to automated records and accounting systems, archivists face the need to reconsider their approaches to accessioning, management, processing, and description. EDP archives have also raised new ethical and legal questions concerning patron access and donor privacy. And archivists are increasingly faced with the need to learn more about the systems that generate these records in order to appraise their evidential and informational value more effectively. Thus, regardless of their previous interests in the area of automated records and techniques, many archivists are finding themselves in a situation where they are obliged to become EDP specialists.

Sixty-one percent of those polled by SAA in 1979 also expressed concern over an anticipated decline in the financial resources of archives in

the years ahead. Many of these same professionals work in library, business, or government settings and have observed the tangible savings, especially in staff time, experienced by other departments within their institution as they automated. For example, in college and university libraries, from which the SAA draws a significant portion of its membership, it is no longer uncommon to find acquisitions, cataloging, and inter-library loan functions carried out on computer terminals. While the benefits of library automation are not directly transferable to an archival setting, the great strides achieved in library automation in the last decade have made a lasting impression on many archivists. As a result of this exposure, many archivists are now acutely aware that the computer is having, and will continue to have, a formative influence on their own work and responsibilities.

With the growing acceptance of archival automation as a viable alternative to more traditional archival administrative techniques, and with the realization that now, and in the future, archives will be required to maintain machine-readable records, the archival profession has moved from a stance of disinterest and doubt to one of growing anticipation. This in turn has led to increasing research activity and to the release of numerous publications pertaining to this emergent professional subfield. In 1979, the American Archivist devoted an entire issue to EDP archives and computer-based finding aids.[6] In addition, SAA has released a series of separate publications on automation and EDP records, including an annotated bibliography, a basic manual, and a volume of symposium proceedings.[7] Perhaps more dramatically than anywhere else, the SAA automation bibliography documents the nature and direction of research concerning computers, archival administration, and machine-readable records.[8]

One must not lose sight of equally important

efforts conducted by archivists abroad. In 1972 the International Council on Archives (ICA) established a "working party on the implications of automatic data processing for archival management."[9] This working party has served as an international forum for the discussion of archival applications involving automated records and techniques. The most significant contribution of this group to date has been the publication of a bilingual (French/English) journal, Automatic Data Processing in Archives, which serves as an information clearinghouse for those involved in the field.[10]

In America, the SAA Task Force on Automated Records and Techniques has served a vital educational and liaison function, bringing concerned archivists and the cybernetic age closer together.[11] Major government and university archives, including the National Archives, the Library of Congress, Cornell University, and the University of Michigan, have undertaken major research, development, and educational efforts of their own.[12] Among these projects, the development of SPINDEX by the National Archives in conjunction with a consortium of university and corporate users stands out as a major accomplishment.[13]

As important as all of these accomplishments are, they only begin to address the educational needs of the professional as a whole. Workshops, seminars, and conference sessions sponsored by the SAA or by regional archival associations have in the recent past served to fill this void. However, many archivists return from these training sessions dissatisfied. The reasons for this unhappiness with the current level of professional educational activity regarding archival automation are two-fold.

First, most practicing archivsts have received little or no training in computer technology, programming, or quantitative research. These archivists

face understandable difficulty in relating to the technical, administrative, intellectual, and even user-related needs of EDP archives and automated techniques. Second, those programs currently available to archivists for training purposes often address themselves to the needs of very large government agencies and research institutions. While imparting valuable information, these sessions fail to direct their attention to the pressing needs and concerns of small and medium-size archives.

If archivists as a profession are to progress from the second stage of education to the third and final stage of application, these problems must be dealt with. Archivists must approach this aspect of archival education more systematically. It is a propitious time, as part of our current re-evaluation of training practice and development of accreditation criteria, to introduce automated records and techniques into our course curriculums.[14] This would ultimately mean a modicum of training in statistics, computer programming, and quantitative research combined with some practical, hands-on experience with computers for those entering the field of archival administration.

For archivists already working in the field, re-education is not such an easy alternative. Those employed by colleges or universities could conceivably take a few courses to supplement their formal training and experience in archives. This would not require any special programs; any comprehensive introductory course in statistics and computer science would, in all probability, suffice. Government and business archivists may not have access to university courses, but their agencies may provide training seminars for computer center personnel that might prove useful. In addition, a thorough tour of the parent institution's computer facility, combined with some experience in working with the equipment in the computer center, would help in at least

familiarizing archivists with EDP hardware, software, and records management problems. Finally, for the adventurous types, the home computer industry affords the opportunity for training and experience with computers within the comfort of one's own domicile.

Whatever specific strategy is chosen, archivists, especially those who are responsible for the education of the next generation, must develop the means to gain a fuller understanding of automated records and techniques. Conferences and workshops dealing with archival automation are only part of the answer. In the future, archivists will need a more substantial background in EDP records and techniques if they are to do their job properly. This in turn means that archivists must take a hard look at the manner in which new people are trained and adjust their methods accordingly.

EDP archives and computer-operated administrative systems are currently the province of large government and major university archives. The inhibiting factors for most small and medium-size archives in adopting automated systems are those of initial cost and personnel. Ultimately, all well-designed automated systems will save their users time and labor, and hence money, but the start-up costs for an automated program along these lines can be considerable. Both SPINDEX and the Smithsonian Institution's SELGEM programs, for example, require large computer hardware systems (main-frame computers) to operate.[15] Unless an archives has access to such a system, operating costs for an automated system may prove prohibitive. If systems specialists, able to adapt the programming (software package) to an archives' requirements, are not readily available to the archives and willing to cooperate in the implementation of archival automated systems, the costs of bringing these services into the archives may also be too great.

Since government agencies and major universities and research centers usually have access to both adequate main-frame facilities and trained personnel, it is not surprising that they are leading the way in the development of archival and information management software. Even for these institutions, the maintenance of data archives has proven most difficult, since the highly specialized requirements for the preservation and servicing of EDP records requires expert and therefore costly professional supervision. The recognition of these problems has led to the emergence of a few machine-readable data archives such as the Inter-University Consortium for Political and Social Research and the Federal EDP archives, thus further reducing the likelihood of participation in the research and development process by smaller institutions and their staffs.

However, recent technological innovations and a number of high-level planning decisions within government suggest that the future for EDP archives and for the applications within more traditional archives is hopeful, indeed promising. Many archivists recognize that in spite of the growing importance of machine-readable records in our society, their long-term storage and use in research are undertakings that will always require substantial staff and financial resources. Few institutions can support such a project alone, and it now appears certain that the profession will move towards the establishment of cooperative centers for the management of archival machine-readable records.

The future is much less apparent in the area of EDP applications in archives. At least in the short term, SPINDEX and similar main-frame oriented software systems will continue to prosper. Indeed, projects currently underway by the Tennessee State Archives, Cornell University, and the Wisconsin Historical Society suggest that a number of agencies

have already chosen SPINDEX as their future information management system. This may, however, prove to be just a temporary phenomenon. SPINDEX, SELEGEM, and the rest are not particularly flexible in terms of either their hardware or software capabilities, nor are they inexpensive to obtain and maintain. While experimenting continues with system networking, and thus with the expansion of information retrieval beyond the walls of a single archives, the prospects for a national information system based upon something like SPINDEX appear remote.

Archivists drawing upon the experiences of colleagues in the library profession must begin the transition to automation with the development of small-scale, in-house systems that meet their own specific information needs. They should keep in mind the problems of "portability" and "networking potential", but their overriding concern ought to be accomplishing in-house tasks. The advent of the microcomputer has dramatically altered what archives can and hope to do in this regard. Like its larger and more expensive main-frame counterpart, the microcomputer has the ability to index, manipulate, and retrieve data, and unlike a main-frame system, it is relatively inexpensive to purchase and maintain.[16] The microcomputer is rapidly becoming a common tool in business, government offices, and records management operations.[17] While only a few archives, such as the Smithsonian Archives and the Archives of Appalachia, have actually considered microcomputer applications systematically,[18] there is no question that the microcomputer will rapidly become a powerful tool in the management of archives and archival collections.

At present, the Archives of Appalachia at East Tennessee State University is at work on a grant supported by the National Endowment for the Humanities to study the feasibility of microcomputer applications in an archival setting. The pace of micro-

computer technological development has complicated matters, since each project discovery based upon the use of a six-month hardware configuration is being eclipsed by manufacturer breakthroughs. Thus, file structurespredicated on the use of 5½-inch diskettes promptly become obsolete as the industry moves into more powerful operating systems employing 8-inch diskettes. These technological advancements have encouraged the project staff to rethink both their development methodology and their ultimate goals.

Even at this early stage, however, the research team at the Archives of Appalachia has discovered some useful information. For example, a microcomputer, when attached to a high quality printer, can serve as a powerful word processor, employed to generate camera-ready copy for archives publications and to handle a wide range of clerical, correspondence, and public relations functions. Secondly, the microcomputer can be programmed to handle the entry of accession and research records, supply inventories, personnel and payroll records, and even entire collection finding aids. The microcomputer also affords full text searching and can retrieve information down to the folder level. When attached to a printer, the microcomputer can print out hard copy versions of searches or finding aids at the discretion of the user.

The microcomputer is extremely affordable, and as technology improves and competition increases it will only become less expensive in the future. Since it employs high-level programming languages (i.e., languages that closely resemble English) such as BASIC and Pascal, archivists can learn to program microcomputers themselves. Many relatively inexpensive software packages, especially for word processing and accounting purposes, are also available. These systems can be loaded into the microcomputer in a matter of seconds. Most of the quality microcomputer systems on the market also have the capability to "interface" (i.e., connect) with other micros

and even main-frame systems over phone lines. Thus, microcomputers offer the archivist the opportunity to manage a wide range of automated systems in-house (including collection accession and description and user services) at a reasonable cost without recourse to an outside computer center. Such a system would also have the ability to connect with systems located in other archives.

Ideally, all archivists would like to see the development of a national information system that could search all of the archives in the United States to locate collections of interest to researchers. Some might argue that the creation of customized in-house microcomputer systems will work against this ultimate objective. However, as an information community, archivists are still in the first stages of defining the elements and structure of this national information system. While a number of proposals are under consideration, there is much to be done before there will be a functioning national network, which may be as many as five to ten years off. Meanwhile, archivists can enjoy the immediate benefits of automation within their own institutions, employing the technology currently available to enhance reference services, improve administrative operations, and free professional staff time from many tedious, clerical functions.

Perhaps most important, the application of automated procedures in archives, even at this early stage, will require archivists to reconsider their standing procedures, especially as these relate to the accessioning and description of their holdings. Standardization of procedures will be essential of archivists are to use the computer effectively and economically. While archivists have as a profession avoided periodic attempts to establish standard formats for their description of archival materials, they can no longer skirt the issue. A careful reexamination of in-house practices can achieve a level of

uniformity commensurate with the requirements of most automated systems. Indeed, the SAA's National Information Systems Task Forces cites this as one of its primary objectives. With a modicum of agreement on formats and information structures, archivists will find themselves in a position to proceed expeditiously with the development of a workable national information network. In the meantime, each self-examination of archival procedures can only lead to more efficient and effective in-house services in preparation for the cybernetic age that is sure to come.

Certain colleagues may view this scenario as overly optimistic. Some will, for example, question the assumption that greater efficiency and economy can be realized by archives through the introduction of automation. Admittedly, the economics of scale enjoyed by libraries through the introduction of OCLC and RLIN are not applicable to an archival setting. However, libraries large and small have automated many other aspects of their operations leading to greater efficiency, better record keeping, and statistics generation, and the shift of many routine duties from professionals to less expensive clerical and support staff. Similarly, archivists can turn to data base management systems and word processing software to handle such activities as accessioning, research registration, finding-aid generation, box and file folder label generation, budgets and grants administration, and routine correspondence and reports. Furthermore, the actual process of re-evaluation which must invariably precede the transition to automation will root out poorly designed and inefficient manual procedures and will encourage the development of a modicum of standardization where no order had existed previously.[19]

The issue of computerized finding aids rather than more traditional manually-produced guides is related to the question of the economical application

of automation to archives. Even the smallest of archives can benefit from the use of a microcomputer-based word processor as the project at the Archives of Appalachia has demonstrated. Indexes, calendars, card catalogs and the like are cumbersome, expensive to maintain, and out-of-date almost as soon as they are issued. For institution-wide, current information on holdings, an updateable, on-line data base of archival holdings descriptions is clearly superior both in terms of enhanced access and in terms of the cost of production and maintenance. Eventually, these institutional data bases will feed into a national automated resource which, thanks to the fine efforts of the National Information Systems Task Force, ought to contain standardized descriptive elements.

In the decade ahead the archival profession's response to automation will be a two-fold process. First, archivists will complete stage two of the model described at the beginning of this article by developing educational programs that will better prepare archivists to deal with both EDP records and EDP techniques within their own programs. Second, archivists will witness a systematic approach to automation within various levels of the profession. There will be, for example, a proliferation of regional data archives, many under federal control, for the permanent storage of EDP records. Archivists will also establish a descriptive standard from which will grow the framework for a national information system for the retrieval of archival materials. Finally, a cross section of the profession's membership will participate in the development of automated information retrieval and administrative systems. These trends will encourage a greater systematization and standardization in archival procedures and hence will facilitate the evolution of a national information network. If the present trends continue, the archival profession will most certainly experience a period of growth and technical sophistication in the decade ahead, a period in which the computer,

including the microcomputer will play an important part.

NOTES

[1]The author would like to acknowledge the assistance of Don Hurst, Head of Systems, University of Colorado at Boulder, in developing Microcomputer Archival and Records Management Systems (MARS) for the Archives of Appalachia and the generous support of the Research Division of the National Endowment for the Humanities and East Tennessee State University in providing both the means and the released time to pursue this research project.

[2]See, for example, Charles M. Dollar, "Computers, the National Archives, and Researchers," Prologue 8 (1976): 29-34; United States, National Archives and Records Service, Catalog of Machine-Readable Records in the National Archives of the United States (Washington, 1977); Meyer H. Fishbein, ed., The National Archives and Statistical Research (Athens: Ohio University Press, 1973); Everett O. Alldredge, "Inventory Magnetic-Media Records," American Archivist (AA) 35 (1972): 337-45; and Jack Denis, "The Relation of Social Science Data Archives to Libraries and Wider Information Networks," Proceedings of the Conference on Interlibrary Communications and Information Networks, Joseph Becker, ed., (Chicago: American Library Association, 1971), 117-20.

[3]See, for example, M.E. Carroll, "Public Archives of Canada Survey of EDP Installations,"

Automatic Data Processing in Archives (ADPA) 1 (1974): 15-25; Ben DeWhitt, "Archival Use of Computers in the United States and Canada," AA 42 (1979): 152-7; Carolyn L. Geda, "Social Science Data Archives," AA 42 (1979): 158-66; and Inter-University Consortium for Political and Social Research, the Bentley Library, and the University of Michigan School of Library Science, Proceedings of a Conference on Archival Management of Machine-Readable Records, Held at the Bentley Library, the University of Michigan, February, 1979 (Chicago: SAA, 1981).

[4]H. Thomas Hickerson, Joan Winters, and Venetia Beale, SPINDEX II at Cornell University and a Review of Archival Automation in the United States (Ithaca: Department of Manuscripts and University Archives, Cornell University Libraries, 1976), pp 23-34. MARC Development Office, Manuscripts: A MARC Format (Washington: Library of Congress, 1973). OCLC has recently established a "Manuscript Task Force" chaired by Helen Slotkin of MIT to examine ways to improve and expand MARC in order to make it more useful to archivists. See Helen M. Slotkin, "Report of OCLC Manuscript Task Force," (xerox copy), April 15, 1980.

[5]SAA Newsletter (March, 1980): 1-2.

[6]AA 42 (1979) included articles by Ben DeWhitt and Carolyn Geda on data archives and Alan Calmes and David Bearman on automated indexing and retrieval systems. See also Charles M. Dollar, "Appraising Machine-Readable Records," AA 41 (1978): 423-430; Richard H. Lytle, "Intellectual Access to Archives: I. Provenance and Content Indexing Methods of Subject Retrieval," AA 43 (1980): 64-75, and "Intellectual Access to Archives: II. Report on an Experiment Employing Provenance and Subject Indexing Methods of Subject Retrieval," AA 43 (1980): 191-208.

[7]Richard M. Kesner, Automation, Machine-Readable

Records, and Archival Administration: An Annotated Bibliography (Chicago: SAA, 1980). H. Thomas Hickerson, Archives and Manuscripts: Automation (Chicago: SAA, 1981). ICPSR et. al., Proceedings.

[8]Kesner, 4-10.

[9]Meyer H. Fishbein of the National Archives and Records Service served (and still serves) as the U.S. representative on that body. For the policies and objectives of the ICA working party, see ADPA 1 (1972): 1-15 (minutes) and Appendix I (resolutions).

[10]ADPA is published irregularly as issues become ready for press. U.S. archivists may obtain subscriptions through Meyer H. Fishbein, Director, Military Archives Division, National Archives and Records Service, Washington, D.C. 20408.

[11]The Committee on Automated Records and Techniques began its work in 1977 through the development of a five-year education program. Many of the recent SAA publications in the field of archival automation stem from the efforts of the committee, now renamed as an SAA Task Force.

[12]See, for example, Frank G. Burke, "SPINDEX II: An Aspect of Archival Information Retrieval," Records Management Quarterly 8/2 (1970): 19-23; Charles A. Goodrum, "Automation and the Congressional Research Service," revised by S. John Kaldahl, Library of Congress, CRS Report No. 78-75-D, March 23, 1978; H. Thomas Hickerson et. al., SPINDEX II; Richard Strassberg and Helen Bunting, "Field Definition Table: Descriptive Guide to the Holdings of the Labor-Management Documentation Center, Cornell University," (xerox copy), March, 1980; and ICPSR et. al., Proceedings.

[13]H. Thomas Hickerson, ed., SPINDEX Users' Conference: Proceedings of A Meeting Held at Cornell

University, Ithaca, New York, March 31 and April 1, 1978 (Ithaca: Department of Manuscripts and University Archives, Cornell University Libraries, 1979). The users of SPINDEX have formed their own organization, the SPINDEX Users Network (SUN) and are publishing a newsletter available to non-users for $10.00 a year.

[14]See AA 43 (1980): 420-2 and SAA Newsletter (July 1979): 19-21, for newly-defined education standards of SAA. For a recent discussion of archival education, see Janet Fyfe and Clifford Collier, eds., Symposium on Archival Education (London, Ontario: School of Library and Information Science, University of Western Ontario, 1980).

[15]See A. L. Bain, "Computer Applications to Archives and Manuscripts at the Smithsonian Institution Archives," ADPA 2/3 (1978): 13-21, for a thorough discussion of SELGEM. For a survey of SPINDEX see Hickerson et. al., SPINDEX II.

[16]A serviceable system including computer memory, printer, two disk drives, a television monitor, and a few software packages costs as little as $3,200.

[17]Charles J. Sippl and Fred Dahl, Computer Power for the Small Business (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1979).

[18]See A. L. Bain, "SIA Systems Review," (draft report, xerox copy), October, 1979. This report was up-dated by its author in a paper presented at the SAA annual meeting, October 3, 1980, along with presentations by Don Hurst and Richard M. Kesner of the Archives of Appalachia on their Microcomputer Archival and Records Management Systems (MARS). For further information see Kesner and Hurst, "MARS: A Development Report: A Study in Progress," Archivaria 12 (1981): 3-20.

[19]See A. Arad and Lionel Bell, "Archival Description - A General System," ADPA 2/3 (1978): 2-9, on the standardization of archival finding aids and its implications for automated indexing and information retrieval.

ANOTHER VIEW OF THE WEST CASE*

Thornton W. Mitchell

The case of State of North Carolina vs. B. C. West, Jr., really began about May 10, 1974, when Paul P. Hoffman learned that a letter from George Washington dated August 26, 1790, to the Governor and Council of State of North Carolina was to be auctioned by Sotheby Parke Bernet in New York City.[1] After consulting the Office of the Attorney General, and with the concurrence of the secretary of the Department of Cultural Resources, Mr. Hoffman inquired about the letter and expressed the interest of the state in it. The letter was not sold, and lengthy negotiations for its return began. In researching the background for possible litigation to recover it, Assistant Attorney General Thomas M. Ringer found that there were no modern precedents in case law supporting the civil recovery or replevin of public records. In spite of the absence of clear-cut precedents Mr. Ringer in November recommended that legan action be started to recover the letter. His approach was based primarily on state and federal cases relating to real property; all of the replevin cases he could find had resulted in adverse rulings.

One further preliminary should be noted. In June, 1974, the North Carolina archives suffered a major theft of documents. As a result, we began to read catalogs offering manuscripts for sale in an effort to trace those stolen from North Carolina. I

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*This article is also to be published in the November, 1981, issue of Carolina Comments, the magazine of the North Carolina Division of Archives and History.

became concerned about the number of public records--particularly from New Jersey and Connecticut--that were being offered for sale as autographs. I talked with the late Kenneth Richards and with Robert Claus (archivists of New Jersey and Connecticut, respectively) at some length about the removal of public records from public custody in their states, but in the absence of a strong archival tradition and statutory authorization for action, they felt they could do nothing about their loss.

On January 13, 1975, George Stevenson called Mr. Hoffman's attention to the fact that Dr. B. C. West, Jr., a manuscript dealer in Elizabeth City, North Carolina, was offering out-of-custody public records for sale. Stevenson's initial thought was that the appearance of these documents on the market was the result of the theft of the previous year. Mr. Hoffman sent the memo on to me with the comment that he thought we should take legal action because it appeared to be a perfect case. The documents concerned were two indictments dated 1767 and 1768 from the records of the Salisbury District Superior Court. I checked the descriptions in Dr. West's catalog against the court dockets and found that the indictments had been tried and that many, but not all, of the indictments of the same terms of court were in the archives. This was sufficient to confirm our opinion that they were public records.

Our first reaction, because of the suspected relationship to the 1974 thefts, was to ask the State Bureau of Investigation to check on Dr. West; we also called Charles Hamilton in New York to determine whether either of the documents had been consigned by one of the men convicted in the theft. In both instances, the results were negative. Before going any further, I talked with the attorneys in the Justice Department with whom we were working on the George Washington letter case.

We agreed, informally, that we had good evidence that the court documents were public records out of custody and that successful recovery would be advantageous in the Washington letter case. I cleared the matter with the director of the Division of Archives and History and the secretary of the Department of Cultural Resources, and on January 15, 1975, I asked the attorney general to initiate replevin action to recover the two documents from Dr. West. On February 3, the secretary of cultural resources formally demanded that the records be returned to public custody. Dr. West declined, and on February 5, 1975, a temporary restraining order was issued in Pasquotank County (North Carolina) Superior Court, which, in effect, impounded the documents pending the outcome of litigation.

I am well aware that there was general agreement that North Carolina under my leadership blundered into the West case without really knowing what it was doing. On the contrary, the West case was very carefully orchestrated. From the outset, we knew where we were going and how we were going to get there. We were also aware of the risks. The consensus was that we had a weak case and that we needlessly endangered our efforts to recover the George Washington letter. Few people realized that we got involved in the West case solely to provide a modern precedent to strengthen our pursuit of the Washington letter, and even fewer realized just how strong a case we had and eventually developed.[2] I must admit that it took some time to develop all facets of our case, but by the time of our first appeal in April, 1976, we had completedly mobilized our strength.

First, we had in the archives the record books and loose papers of the Salisbury District Superior Court which allowed us to trace specific cases from the dockets to the indictments. The indictments for many of the cases from the same period as those advertised by Dr. West had been preserved and were

among the archives of the state. These particular documents, although docketed, were missing from the records of the court. This proved that the two documents were public records and were of a type that had been preserved by the state.

Second, there is a provision in the General Statutes of North Carolina which makes it a misdemeanor to steal, or take from its place of deposit, any original documents belonging to a court of record or relating to any civil or criminal action begun in said court. This provision dates back to British legislation enacted during the reign of Henry VI in the fifteenth century. The West case involved court records, and the statutes of North Carolina have given special protection to court records since at least 1749.

Third, North Carolina is a common law state. In April, 1975, William S. Price, Jr., then editor of North Carolina's Colonial Records Project, investigated the common law background of the nature of public records and concluded that: "It seems clear that prior to the American Revolution, there was precedent in England (and consequently in its colonies) for state ownership of a broad array of letters and memoranda as well as official documents. Any record touching on the affairs of the realm was potentially a record of the sovereign government." Furthermore, citations developed by Dr. Price were forwarded to England, where Dr. Robert J. Cain, then our contract researcher at the Public Record Office, obtained copies of judgments that defined various records as "the King's treasure."

Fourth, continuity was not a problem. The Salisbury District Superior Court--in fact, all district superior courts--went out of existence in 1773, and none was reestablished until 1777. Beginning in June, 1774, however, courts of oyer and terminer and general gaol delivery were held in Salisbury to try criminal cases, including cases for

which indictments were returned by the court discontinued in 1773. When the district superior court was reestablished and met again in March, 1778, it also tried criminal cases on the basis of earlier indictments. Further, on March 13, 1778, Judges Samuel Spencer and James Iredell found Thomas Frohock, clerk of the court discontinued in 1773, in contempt and threw him into the Rowan County jail because he refused to turn over the records of the discontinued court to the newly appointed clerk of the reestablished court.[3]

Finally, we went into the West case for the specific purpose of supporting the matter of recovery of the George Washington letter. In the event that we lost the West case, our strategy was to take the position that it related only to court records and that the proper precedent for the Washington letter was City of New York vs. Lent, a case tried in New York Supreme Court in 1868. The latter case also involved a George Washington letter, and the circumstances were almost identical to our own case.

The weakest part of our case was that we did not know when the two documents offered for sale by Dr. West had left official custody. The Attorney General's office traced them back to 1960, when they were bought by a resident of Cary, a suburb of Raleigh. This person could not remember from whom he purchased them, but it was from one of three dealers in the general vicinity of Charlotte, North Carolina, all of whom were dead in 1975. On the other hand, other identical documents had remained in official custody and were in the archives.

The trial of North Carolina vs. West was held in Elizabeth City, North Carolina, on October 24 and 25, 1975. The Manuscript Society, to which Dr. West had appealed for assistance months earlier, paid the expenses of Charles Hamilton, Mara A. Benjamin, and Richard Maass to testify as expert witnesses. For

the duration of the trial (except for the time he was on the stand) Winston Broadfoot of the Duke University Manuscript Department and a licensed attorney, sat beside Dr. West's attorney and suggested questions to ask the various witnesses, particularly while I was on the witness stand.

On October 25, Judge John Webb handed down what was essentially an equity decision when he ruled that the law was on the side of the state, but he found for the defendant. Interestingly enough, although it does not appear in the formal judgment, Judge Webb held that the testimony of the witnesses for the Manuscript Society was irrelevant. The state then gave notice of appeal.

As I drove back to Raleigh on the afternoon of October 25, I went over in my mind the whole matter of the West case. The previous night, Mr. Costen, Mr. Ringer, and I had decided that if Judge Webb ruled against the state we would appeal to the Court of Appeals, but that if we lost in the Court of Appeals we would drop the case. Because of the judge's ruling, however, I felt we would win in the Court of Appeals and that, because of the manuscript curators and collectors who were supporting him, Dr. West would have no alternative but to appeal to the Supreme Court. Mr. Costen had told me that it might take two years more if the case went to the state Supreme Court--actually it was twenty months--and that if Dr. West and the Manuscript Society tried to take the case to the federal courts in case of a defeat, we might be tied up with the West case for an additional four years.

I resolved, therefore, to make myself the principal protagonist in the West case because a possible six additional years would bring us to the fall of 1981, when I expected to retire. If I were the "villain" in the piece, my retirement would minimize criticism of the Division of Archives and

History, and criticism directed towards me would not adversely affect the programs of the Archives and Records Section. I thought it best to take any blame for the West case because I would soon be out of the picture if it continued for its maximum period; if anyone thinks otherwise, I will be happy to share such epithets as "evil bureaucrat," "thief," and "pirate".

While preparation of the appeal was pending, several things happened. Dr. West, in a letter to the attorney general, accused the archives of concealing information and reported that an "archivist" had contributed $250 toward his expenses. Early in 1976, Dr. West, who was a Republican, attempted to exert political pressure on the Republican state administration to discontinue the appeal of the case. These political and other pressures caused Larry E. Tise, who had become director of the Division of Archives and History in September, 1975, and who had not previously been involved in either the Washington letter or West cases, to get cold feet. He queried Mr. Costen, deputy attorney general handling both cases, about their relationship, and he asked Dr. Price to call various archivists or former archivists for their opinion about the West case.

Mr. Costen informed Dr. Tise late in February that he considered the West matter as a prelude to further pursuit of the Washington letter and concluded, "If there is serious consideration of abandoning the West matter because of policy considerations arising from protests of collectors, the same policy considerations would appear to apply to the Washington matter." Dr. Price queried four persons, and their reactions varied from enthusiastic support to extreme disapproval. By April 1, six days prior to the deadline for filing the formal appeal, Dr. Tise was prepared to recommend that the West case be abandoned because he felt it was weak; there was a need to define replevin in our statutes because of

the possible damage to private institutions; other states were not willing to join in the action; and the Washington letter case was stronger and should be pursued.

The recommendation was never made because in a meeting called by the secretary of cultural resources, it became obvious that the case was unusually strong and that--as Mr. Costen stated--if the West matter was dropped, the state "might was well kiss the George Washington letter goodbye." The appeal was filed, and in November, 1976, Judge Webb's finding for Dr. West was reversed by the Court of Appeals. Dr. West then appealed to the North Carolina Supreme Court.

The Supreme Court had before it not only briefs from the state and Dr. West, but also amicus curiae briefs submitted by Duke University, the American Library Association, and H. Bartholomew Cox. Of the three briefs, only that submitted by Cox showed any real understanding of the issue the state was pursuing. Dr. Cox confused the issue, however, by his efforts to be too scholarly and by his introduction of issues such as the Nixon papers which were of only minimum relevance to the case. The case was argued before the Supreme Court on March 9, 1977. In a 5-2 decision written by Associate Justice I. Beverly Lake, the Supreme Court on June 13, 1977, upheld the decision of the Court of Appeals and ruled that the two documents advertised by Dr. West were the property of the state.

I had been principally concerned about obtaining a modern precedent to support our efforts to recover the George Washington letter. I also felt as a matter of principle that someone had to have the guts to try to slow, or to stop, the flow of public records into the manuscript market which had so impressed us as we read catalogs after the 1974 theft from the North Carolina archives. I felt from the

beginning that we had a better than even chance of winning the West case, but win or lose I was willing to take a position on the recovery of public documents out of custody.

I knew also that my general reputation as a person who tended to leap before he looked and to blunder into matters without thinking them through would minimize any effects of our pursuit of the West case among other members of the profession, regardless of whether we won or lost. Further, I was not concerned about alienating manuscript curators or disturbing the balance between archivists and related professions, because I felt that balance no longer existed and the relationship between archivists and manuscript custodians had already been critically damaged. Finally, I knew I had risen as high, professionally, as I ever would; I was not going anywhere because I was already there. I was not a candidate for anything; I was not an applicant for anything. Unlike some of my colleagues, I did not have to avoid stepping on anyone's toes.

The reaction to the West decision among manuscript collectors and curators was as expected. P. William Philby, president of the Manuscript Society, called the case a "travesty". The dissenting opinion, which was just that and not the rule of the court, has been quoted extensively; except for Dr. Price's papers at the Society of American Archivists meeting in Salt Lake City, I have yet to see the rationale of the majority opinion stated. As expected, I received no accolades following the decision. As a matter of fact, the only commendation I received came from Charles Hamilton several months later, when he told me that if he had been a North Carolina state archivist he would have done exactly what I did.

A great deal has been made of the alleged fact that the two documents were acquired by the state "without compensation", usually written in italics or in capital letters, completely ignoring what the

Supreme Court actually said. Justice Lake pointed out that state statutes did not permit the court to order payment to Dr. West either by the court itself or by the Division of Archives and History. Any reimbursement to Dr. West would have to be approved by the General Assembly; as far as we know, Dr. West did not seek payment from the legislature. Nor do we know whether he sought redress from Charles Hamilton, who guarantees clear title to documents which he sells; in the case of the two indictments this obviously was not the case.

I have never understood why the Manuscript Society did not buy the two documents from Dr. West and give them to the state, thus pulling the rug out from under our case. The society spent $750, the amount Dr. West paid for the documents, in sending three witnesses to Elizabeth City for the October, 1975, trial. The society apparently decided to join the fight as a matter of principle, without really understanding our purpose. Anyone who fights as a matter of principle runs the risk of losing. We fought as a matter of principle. We won; the Manuscript Society lost. If we had lost, I think we would have taken our defeat with better grace than the society has.

The appeal to the federal courts never appeared, although the Executive Board of the American Library Association early in July, 1977, directed its counsel to prepare papers to take the West case to the United States Supreme Court. Counsel recommended, however, that the case not be appealed. He considered that the decision of the North Carolina Supreme Court was ill conceived and that it provided inadequate rationale for determining the ownership of public records out of custody. He also felt that the full implication of the decision was not fully understood, and pointed out that constitutional issues had not been raised or considered during the trial and that, accordingly, the record of the case was deficient.

He felt, further, that the case did not involve issues in a manner to encourage the type of decision required. And finally, he could see no consensus regarding the ownership of public records and how such ownership should be determined.[4]

The George Washington letter that started it all? North Carolina had filed discovery action in federal court to determine the name of the person in possession of the document in order to bring action to recover; the action had been defeated in both district and appeals courts on procedural grounds. On the suggestion of judges on the court of appeals, however, action was brought in New York state courts about the time of the North Carolina Court of Appeals decision. Negotiations looking toward an out-of-court settlement were initiated on March 7, 1977, and were successfully concluded on June 10, 1977, three days before the Supreme Court decision on the West case was handed down. On July 28, 1977, I went to New York, where I signed a receipt and a release, and returned the George Washington letter to North Carolina.

One final irony: The person who told Paul Hoffman about the George Washington letter was B.C. West.

NOTES

[1]The information in this article has been taken from the file relating to the West case in the Archives and Records Section, Division of Archives and History; from the file relating to the case in the Attorney General's office; and from the records of the secretary of cultural resources and the director of archives and history.

[2]The pursuit of the West case was not a one-man operation, but a team effort involving many people. The contribution of T. Buie Costen and Thomas M. Ringer of the attorney general's staff was of major significance. The initial impulse came from Paul Hoffman, who was instrumental in gathering information for the attorney general's staff members. The file on the West case is filled with memos and notes from George Stevenson who, among other things, prepared the reply to the interrogatory requested by Dr. West. Catherine J. Morris prepared a lengthy statement of court records accessioned by the archives, and the local records archivists compared the Salisbury District Superior Court dockets with the indictments in the archives for a period of four years.

[3]Information about the Salisbury District Superior Court has been taken from the records of the court in the North Carolina archives.

[4]Counsel also recommended that the American Library Association design an appropriate form of law suit in order to force the North Carolina Supreme Court to reverse itself.

PRUNING THE GROVES OF ACADEME: APPRAISAL, ARRANGEMENT AND DESCRIPTION OF FACULTY PAPERS

Mary E. Janzen

In 1978, the National Historical Publications and Records Commission's Directory of Archives and Manuscript Repositories listed 380 college and university archives, many of which had been established since 1962. As a distinct category of archival institution, these archives are situated somewhere on the spectrum between traditional manuscript repositories and other governmental, organizational, and institutional archives. Most not only serve as custodians of the official records of their host institutions but also collect a broad range of non-official papers and records, some organically connected to the college or university and others having no direct relationship with that community.

Not coincidentally, the quarter-century following World War II also witnessed an exponential growth in both the size and number of institutions of higher learning in the United States. The total number of faculty at newly-established or greatly-expanded colleges and universities increased correspondingly, and now numbers over three-quarters of a million.

One consequence of this rapid increase in the number of college and university archival repositories and in the size of college and university faculties is that more papers of academicians are now being preserved than even before. Will the papers of academics ultimately come to be overrepresented in the nation's archival repositories? This question is unanswerable, but it underlines the fact that

appraisal of faculty papers, like any other appraisal decision, is a dynamic process, one that changes with changing circumstances.

The appraisal criteria of an archivist who is establishing a college or university archives will differ from those of an archivist at a long-standing repository. Initially, the archivist at a newly-established repository may be inclined to acquire virtually every collection of faculty papers that becomes available. Initial acquisitions of papers, if of sufficiently prominent faculty and if properly publicized, can function as magnets to draw further accessions. The archivist can then refine standards as his or her knowledge of the institution grows and gaps in the archives' holdings become apparent. Established college and university archives must necessarily apply more rigorous appraisal standards because of limitations on available storage space.

Appraisal of faculty papers involves a number of questions. How do the papers exemplify the history of a particular university? What are their implications for the history of higher education in America? Do they reflect the development of an academic discipline? What information do they contain that might illuminate broader social phenomenon? In many cases--though not all--the answers to these questions will be related to the eminence of each faculty member. While it is certainly true that prominent academics can create very disappointing bodies of papers, acknowledged leaders in various disciplines are most likely to correspond with others of their rank and to be engaged with important issues of the day. This means that it would be advisable to preserve the papers of individuals such as John Dewey or Frederick Jackson Turner in their entirety as a service to researchers pursuing a wide variety of topics.

The process of appraisal, however, only begins with the identification of those faculty whose papers would be particularly appropriate for inclusion among a university archives' holdings. Appraisal is a continuous process which should be applied at every stage of arrangement and description. Once the papers are acquired, further questions should be posed. Which materials should be retained? Which can safely be discarded?

Faculty papers can be approached most profitably as a faculty member's personal archives. The best arrangement will take into account both the form of the documents and the functions carried out by the faculty member. Biographical materials and correspondence should be processed first, since they provide a chronological framework which will assist in appraising, arranging, and describing the remainder of the papers.

Biographical materials, in the form of vitae, bibliographies, entries prepared for Who's Who and other directories, award certificates, autobiographical writings, press releases, news clippings, and obituaries should be arranged in the first folders of the collection. Together with the biographical essay and scope and content note in the descriptive inventory, this kind of material provides the researcher with the best introduction to a collection.

The correspondence ordinarily will reflect the faculty member's role both in the college or university and in his or her discipline. It can help identify and date manuscripts, speeches, lecture notes, and other materials that comprise the remainder of the collection. In the absence of a useful original file order, correspondence has traditionally been arranged chronologically. However, an alphabetical arrangement by surname of incoming correspondent or subject may better serve many researchers, especially those primarily interested in the letters

of individuals other than the faculty member in whose papers they repose. A name and subject index to chronologically-arranged correspondence provides excellent access, but a complete index is very time-consuming to prepare, and a selective one can mislead the user.

The arrangement of the balance of a faculty member's papers will vary. Usually one finds a range of materials which reflects and documents an academic's multi-faceted role as teacher, author, scholar, administrator, committee member, participant in professional organizations, consultant, private citizen, and family member. Not every collection will include a full spectrum of such materials, nor do all types of material have to be preserved in every collection. Typically, faculty papers do not break down so neatly into discrete categories, since so many of an academic's functions are interrelated. As a general rule, a useable pre-existing arrangement should not be discarded in favor of artificial categories. In cases where personal, professional, and administrative papers are intermingled, distinctions which cannot be made through arrangement may be handled by the description, which should link related materials filed in different folders and boxes.

Certain common components of academics' papers may pose difficult appraisal problems. Bodies of official records of a college or university, for example, are often found among the personal papers of its faculty members. Official files of various college or university committees, traditionally maintained by the chair of the committee, are often retained as part of personal files. In many instances, even departmental records have been considered by a chairperson as his or her personal papers. Such files, if discrete and clearly identifiable, should be separated from a faculty member's papers and processed as official records. If they are intermingled with personal papers to a degree

which makes it impractical to separate them, their presence should be noted in the description, and cross-references should be filed with descriptions of appropriate official records.

Teaching materials such as lecture notes, course outlines, syllabi, examination questions, grade books, and student papers comprise a category of papers whose value is often difficult to determine. Lecture notes in some instances reflect stages in the development of important ideas, whose evolution would remain unknown were it not for the preservation of these notes. Although most lecture notes which university archivists will encounter will not be of this caliber, their potential use as a source for intellectual history should not be overlooked.

Lecture notes, syllabi, examination questions, student papers, and notebooks may also provide evidence for the history of pedagogy. Historians of education have encountered difficulty in determining exactly what was taught in classrooms as recently as forty years ago. Course descriptions in catalogs are so skeletal that one is tempted to assign to them contemporary definitions and read into them current course contents. Of what value are student papers in this regard? Apart from interest in their content, student papers can contribute to the understanding of grading standards over a period of time, revealing changing concepts of superior, average, and unacceptable work. A sample might be separated from faculty papers and placed in a separate series arranged chronologically for each discipline.

Whether or not a particular body of teaching materials should be preserved may be determined by such factors as their volume, legibility, completeness, and physical condition as well as the reputation of the particular faculty member who produced

them. Essential duplication of content is another consideration. A university archives scarcely needs to retain six different sets of course materials for Introductory Economics.

Drafts of articles and books, ranging from rough notes through galley proof, are frequently found in faculty papers. How many sequential forms documenting the evolution of a faculty member's writings should be saved? For most faculty papers, this category of materials will be consulted infrequently. Hence, the degree of order and the completeness of drafts should be major factors in an appraisal decision. For well-ordered papers of not too great a bulk, it may be more expeditious to simply save all drafts than to attempt to compare different versions for significant changes. Of course, multiple carbons without corrections can be discarded.

Research files pose an especially difficult appraisal problem. An article written by Paul Lewinson in 1960 on the appraisal of files of government-sponsored research projects still offers some thought-provoking insights.[1] Lewinson's distinction between "administratively important" and "substantively important" research projects can be applied to faculty research files.

The "administratively important" project is one in which an individual or institution invested considerable time and money or which was related to a particularly urgent political or social concern of its time. For this type of project, Lewinson suggested preserving planning and administrative files, the report of the outcome (in published or manuscript form), and any critiques the project may have generated.

The second type of research project, he called "substantively important" because it either resulted

in some great intellectual break-through or produced data of continuing interest which was not fully exploited in the published report. Also included in this category would be important work that never appeared in published form due to the death of the principal investigator, loss of funding, security restrictions, etc. For "substantively important" projects, one might save the raw data as well as administrative file, publications, and critiques.

It was Lewinson's judgment that most research files maintained by historians, legal scholars, and experimental scientists may be discarded because the data they contain is usually adequately represented in the published outcome of their research. On the other hand, he regarded files of observational scientists such as geologists, meteorologists, explorers, and astronomers as having potential long-term value, since the events they record are non-repeatable. Long, unbroken runs of such data are of great interest to scientists, provided that the recording instruments used were sufficiently precise to enable them to be compared to more recent observations. Social scientists' files, particularly large-scale surveys and statistical studies which would be prohibitively expensive to repeat, often contain unexploited data. Hence, Lewinson recommended that they be considered for preservation even though the volume and the format of such files often pose serious problems.

Lewinson's rough guidelines will, however, be of only limited assistance in making a particular appraisal decision, and should be applied with caution. For example, an historian's notes from German archives that were subsequently destroyed during World War II are valuable primary sources and should be treated as such. Although clippings files pose serious conservation problems, they can be enormously useful, as any scholar who has become bleary-eyed examining unindexed newspapers on microfilm can attest. Observational

scientific data from the early years of the twentieth century may prove impossible to correlate with later data because of advances in instrumentation. Each set of research files therefore must be considered individually, taking into account the cost of processing and preserving them as well as the inherent value of whatever information they might contain.

Lewinson also recommended turning to subject specialists for assistance in the appraisal of research files. However, expert advice is not always available, and when it is, the subject expert cannot be expected to have knowledge of all the factors that enter into an appraisal decision, particularly of the costs of processing and preservation. Ultimately, university archivists are forced to rely upon their own ability to educate themselves in the subject matter of a variety of academic disciplines.

Some types of materials can be readily separated from faculty papers. For example, university publications and other informational materials that were widely reproduced and distributed should be culled from faculty papers and placed in a university publications series, accessed by office of origin. A broad definition of "university publications" encompassing all forms of duplicated materials created and distributed by university offices is most serviceable. Such material will be most accessible under this kind of archival control, and its removal will also contribute significantly to reducing the bulk of collections of faculty papers.

Typical collections of faculty papers also contain quantities of offprints of articles sent to the faculty member by colleagues and former students, as well as other extraneous printed materials. Unless heavily annotated or integrally-related to the contents of a particular file, these printed

items may be discarded or dispersed to other appropriate departments in the college or university library.

A final category of material which presents special appraisal problems is a faculty member's personal, or more properly, private papers. Private correspondence provides a richer, more complete portrait of the faculty member than can usually be drawn from his or her professional papers alone. Such correspondence can also provide information of value to scholars interested in the sociology of the professions, a topic of great current interest among historians. If possible, private correspondence should be solicited from prospective donors, although restrictions may be imposed on material that might be potentially embarrassing.

Similar considerations also apply to professional correspondence containing critical remarks about colleagues or students. In general archivists impose restrictions with great reluctance, but some restrictions may be necessary for limited periods. Such temporary restrictions are imposed not to suppress information, but to insure its survival as part of the record. In a close-knit academic community, serious damage may be done to the collecting program of the university archives if members of the faculty become convinced that leaks of comments made in confidence are emanating from users of faculty collections deposited in the archives.

Every day college and university archivists make appraisal decisions about faculty papers that will ultimately determine what kind of historical evidence of academic life in America will survive in archival repositories. What Frederick Rudolph wrote in 1962 is still largely true: "The history of the American college professor is waiting for the perceptive and sensitive student, someone who is prepared to search out the changing nature of his

recruitment and social origins, his social and economic status, and his social function and ... prepared to tell the story without losing sight of the professional life and human records it has built."[2] College and university archivists need to cooperate in developing appropriate guidelines for selecting, arranging, and preserving faculty papers for studies of such scope.

NOTES

[1]Paul Lewinson, "Toward Accessioning Standards--Research Records," American Archivist 23 (1960): 297-310.

[2]Frederick Rudolph, The American College and University: A History. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1962, p. 504.

[3]Adapted from a list prepared and distributed to faculty at Northwestern University by University Archivist Patrick M. Quinn.

Table 1

Documenting The Careers Of Faculty:
Materials Sought By
A College Or University Archives[3]

1. Biographical material: resumes, vitae, bibliographies, biographical and autobiographical sketches, chronologies, genealogies, newspaper clippings, biographical questionnaires and/or entries, memoirs, reviews of publications, financial records
2. Correspondence
   a. Official: outgoing (copies and/or drafts) and incoming letters and memoranda generated in the course of conducting University business
   b. Professional: outgoing and incoming correspondence with colleagues, publishers, professional societies, students, etc.
   c. Personal: letters to and from friends, relatives, acquaintances and business contacts
3. Diaries, notebooks, appointment calendars, memorabilia
4. Class lecture notes, syllabi, course outlines, reading lists, examinations, student papers
5. Copies and drafts of reviews, speeches, articles and books
6. Research files
7. Departmental or committee records
8. Photographs
9. Tape recordings

This list is by no means definitive or exhaustive. It is intended to give a general idea of the kinds of materials which reflect and illuminate the careers of members of the faculty.

A HOME FOR A DREAM: THE FREEDOM HALL COMPLEX

D. Louise Cook

Thirteen years after the violent death of Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., a new complex bearing his name has risen on Auburn Avenue in Atlanta. Coretta Scott King, the widow of the late human rights leader, is quick to point out that the new Freedom Hall Complex, which houses the various components of the Martin Luther King, Jr., Center for Nonviolent Social Change, is a living, working memorial and not merely a cold monument to the memory of the man.

After his death, Mrs. King vowed that she would carry on her husband's dream. For the first few years she struggled to support a small staff working in the basement of her home. As the number of programs increased, the Center rented space from a nearby theological seminary, and ultimately expanded into a renovated Victorian house next door to the home where Dr. King had been born. In 1974, in spite of the great difficulty she knew she would face in raising the money, Mrs. King and other members of the King family met with a New York architectural firm, Bond/Ryder Associates, to discuss the design of a permanent home for the burgeoning King Center programs.

The site itself presented an enormous challenge, for it lay in the heart of the Sweet Auburn Historic District, a deteriorating area which had been a mecca for black businesses in the first half of the twentieth century. "Sweet Auburn" includes the offices of the Southern Christian Leadership Conference, the home where Dr. King was born, his burial place, and Ebenezer Baptist Church where he and his father preached.

Even greater than the geographical consideration was the challenge of capturing architecturally the spirit of the man whose life so profoundly and intimately affected the very structure of American life. Martin Luther King, Jr., was a simple man, one who did not care for material affluence. The challenge to the architect was to design an edifice which would be compatible aesthetically with King's spirit of selfless commitment and which would itself facilitate the nonviolence which was at the core of King's philosophy. The notes of the first building committee meeting reflect the desire to emphasize life and nature by utilizing the building materials which would evoke the basic elements of nature--fire, water, and earth--and the basic forms of design such as the circle.[1]

The city of Atlanta has also been involved in developing the Auburn Avenue district, and in 1976 completed construction of a multi-purpose community center named in Dr. King's honor, directly across the street from the entombment. Since that time, the city has also opened an indoor swimming pool adjacent to the center. Under the leadership of Maynard Jackson, mayor of Atlanta, both local and federal government agencies have cooperated with the King Center on a number of neighborhood revitalization projects designed to improve the quality of life in the area and to preserve the integrity of the historic district. The home where Dr. King was born, which is one block from the crypt site, was the first birth home of a black American to be listed on the National Register of Historic Sites. The house next door, which was renovated with community development funds from the city, now serves as offices for several of the Center programs. Its exterior has been preserved as a fine example of a Victorian residence.

A major accomplishment of the preservation/ revitalization effort was realized a year ago, when

Congress passed legislation to create a National Park Service unit around the intersection of Auburn Avenue and Boulevard. Encompassing twenty-three and one-half acres, the Martin Luther King, Jr., National Historic Site and Preservation District includes the birthplace, boyhood home, church, and gravesite of the civil rights leader, as well as the Martin Luther King, Jr., Center for Nonviolent Social Change.

In the midst of the preservation/revitalization efforts, Mrs. King convinced Henry Ford II, chairman of the board of the Ford Motor Company, to lead a corporate campaign to raise the estimated eight and one-half million dollars needed to complete the construction of the Freedom Hall Complex: the international conference center and the archives and administration building. Groundbreaking occurred on October 18, 1979, and with pledges still to be secured, construction began shortly thereafter. Just two years later, on October 19, 1981, the final two buildings completed their first full day of operation.

At the very heart of the King Center's strength is the King Library and Archives. In his last book, Where Do We Go From Here: Chaos or Community?, the human rights leader urged "that the philosophy and strategy of nonviolence become immediately a subject for study and for serious experimentation in every field of human conflict, by no means excluding the relations between the nations."[2] His words were also echoed by the National Commission on the Causes and Prevention of Violence, which was appointed in the wake of the turmoil occurring after King's assassination. The commission recognized the importance of research as essential to its ability to accomplish the taks of analyzing the many facets of violence in America. The commission was later to find that few significant works on violence in America--or comparative works on violence in other countries--existed.[3] In the case of nonviolence, the case is

even more acute.

Therefore one of the very earliest Center programs, begun in 1968, was the Library Documentation Program (LDP), the forerunner of the King Library and Archives. Under an initial grant from the Rockefeller Foundation, the LDP staff scoured the country gathering the records created by the major civil rights organizations during the 1950s and 1960s. The decrease in some of the groups after 1970 made it imperative to collect as many of these materials as soon as possible before they became lost or destroyed. Their own success in implementing nonviolent techniques, internal problems, the changing mood of the country, and a host of other factors had resulted in the total collapse of the Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee (SNCC) and the Mississippi freedom Democratic Party (MFDP), for example. Yet, thanks to the Library Documentation Project, the records of these and other organizations survived and are now available for scholarly study.

In addition to the manuscript collecting program, the LDP began an oral history program and interviewed many of Dr. King's closest associates. As a result, the King Library and Archives has a unique oral history collection on the civil rights movement, including, for example, a series of interviews with four of the organizers of the first successful bus boycott, in Baton Rouge, Louisiana, in 1953. This boycott, which preceded the more widely-known Montgomery bus boycott, has received very little publicity in academic literature. However, the nonviolent campaign in Baton Rouge laid the foundation for the Montgomery effort led by Dr. King a short time later. Without the preservation and study of resource materials such as these oral histories, which illuminate the strategies and philosophies which were employed by the civil rights organizations, it would be impossible to put the resulting events into their proper historical

The two manuscript collections in the archives which are most closely associated with Dr. King are the records of the Southern Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC) and Dr. King's own papers, 1956-1968. After the success of the bus boycott in Montgomery in 1955 and 1956, King recognized the need for a concerted, region-wide effort to end discrimination and segregation. Relying heavily upon his own knowledge of and experience in the black Southern Baptist church, he directed his recruiting efforts primarily toward black ministers, knowing that they were frequently community as well as spiritual leaders. In 1957, King called a meeting in Atlanta of the officers of the Montgomery Improvement Association (MIA) and sixty other ministers and laypersons from across the South. By the end of that year, the organization had adopted the SCLC name and had elected King as its president, a position which he held until his death in 1968.

The King and SCLC collections reflect his own and the organization's prominent role in the civil rights movement. As an organization dedicated to the abolition of social and economic injustice, the SCLC attacked the evils of racial discrimination in two diverse but effective ways: voter registration and political education, and direct action. Due to the crisis-oriented nature of the 1960s, when many decisions were handled by telephone, the SCLC collection documents the voter registration and political education efforts more thoroughly than it does the direct action campaigns of Birmingham, Selma, and Chicago. However, the King papers do shed some light on these areas and include, for example, an analysis of the Selma campaign written by King while incarcerated in Alabama.

The King papers include more than fourteen thousand pieces of substantive correspondence and

over five hundred of his speeches, sermons, statements, and articles. The correspondence includes letters among all the major civil rights organizations, as well as with government leaders and anti-Vietnam War groups. King's manuscripts chronicle his own personal development from the boycott in 1955, when he was only twenty-six years old, through the violence-torn campaigns of the early 1960s, and finally into the mid- and late-1960s when he became an outspoken critic of American involvement in the Vietnam War.

Martin Luther King, Jr., was always slightly ahead of his own time, and his decision to speak out against the war in Vietnam preyed heavily on his mind. Even longtime supporters and civil rights leaders divided on this issue. The King papers provide a rare glimpse into the mind of a deeply moral man wrestling with his God and his own conscience in reaching a decision based upon his deep commitment to nonviolence, which he knew would be unpopular among even some of his closest associates and would result in a severe cut in financial support of the SCLC.

The papers of the Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee (SNCC) are also the product of fertile minds and deeply committed individuals. The SNCC had a turbulent ten-year history. It was founded in 1960 by a group of student leaders as a result of the student sit-in movement which had successfully desegregated lunch counters and restaurants in North Carolina, Tennessee, South Carolina, and Georgia. The SCLC assisted the students financially on several occasions, but from the very beginning the students of the SNCC stressed their independence of the other civil rights organizations, concentrating their efforts on voter registration in rural, poverty-stricken areas of the South.

The SNCC collection deals primarily with the

years between 1961 and 1965, but other personal collections in the archives from some of the members of the SNCC illuminate the later 1960s, when the organization became increasingly militant and was most closely associated with the black power movement. The black panther which later became the symbol for the Black Panther Party was in fact first used by the SNCC as a symbol for the alternative election process it created in Mississippi in 1964.

The year 1964, which is heavily documented in the SNCC collection, saw the rise of the Mississippi Freedom Democratic Party (MFDP) which led to a challenge to the seating of the Mississippi delegation to the Democratic national convention, the murder of three young civil rights workers as only one of a series of violent incidents during the summer, and the beginnings of the black power movement which ultimately resulted in deep schisms among various civil rights organizations. The role of whites in the movement and the exclusive use of nonviolence had always evoked argument within the organization. In the minutes of staff meetings, field reports, and in correspondence, SNCC and MFDP staffers discuss these issues, which are central even today when America is torn asunder with violence and racism.

The papers of several less visible, but nevertheless effective organizations active in the civil rights movement document still other crucial components of the struggle: education, particularly preschool training, and relief in the form of food, clothing, and shelter for those in depressed areas of Mississippi. The Episcopal Society for Culture and Racial Unity (ESCRU) was an Atlanta-based organization founded in 1958 to facilitate racial integration in the Episcopal church. Later the organization extended its efforts to South Africa, where it campaigned for the withdrawal of Episcopal church funds from investments in that segregated country. Delta Ministry, another religious-based group, combined

relief to the disadvantaged in the Mississippi delta region with voter registration. The organization, which also created a housing program for displaced families, is one of the few organizations of its kind still active in Mississippi today. A third project, the Child Development Group of Mississippi, focused its efforts on education, creating the first head-start program in the state.

Other collections in the King Library and Archives processed with the assistance of a grant from the National Endowment for the Humanities include the records of the National Lawyers Guild, for years a target of the House Un-American Activities Committee; the records of the Congress of Racial Equality, a New York-based organization which sponsored the Freedom Rides in 1960 and 1961; and the papers of the Chicago Council of Community Organizations, which brought the SCLC into the urban ghetto for the first time. Numerous smaller collections which are also available for research include the papers of Fred Gray and Howard Moore, both civil rights attorneys; tape recordings of King's speeches and sermons as well as those made by James Forman, executive secretary of the SNCC; dissertations on King and the movement; and various little-circulated civil rights newspapers and newsletters.

The opening of the King Library and Archives was a significant milestone in the development of the King Center, but other tasks remain. It is the goal of the Center to become the finest research facility on the study of nonviolence in the world, and the staff of the archives has just begun a major acquisitions program to expand its holdings to include materials relating not only to the civil rights movement, but also to world-wide efforts in the struggle for human rights through nonviolent means.

The first major acquisition has been the papers of former Ambassador Andrew Young. An ordained

minister, Young began his career as youth director of the National Council of Churches (NCC). In 1961, the NCC sponsored a program for the SCLC to train rural black adults in the basic skills required to pass voter registration exams. Young was assigned to SCLC to head that program and ultimately became a staff member of SCLC, rising to the position of executive director. A strong advocate of the nonviolent philosophy, Young was the first black elected to Congress from the deep South since Reconstruction. In January 1977, by appointment from President Jimmy Carter, he became the first black to serve as United States Ambassador to the United Nations. Young is particularly known for his efforts on behalf of Third World countries and the struggles for independence there. His papers, which are closed until processing is completed, range from his early years with SCLC, through his congressional tenure, and into his service at the United Nations.

It is difficult to capture the attention of a society in which the daily news reports are filled with violence, and there must be multi-faceted effort to publicize the tangible results of the nonviolent movement. Throughout the world today, there are groups and individuals using the techniques of nonviolence successfully to bring about constructive social change. For a wide variety of reasons, these groups receive only limited publicity, and all too often they themselves are singularly uninformed about other, similar efforts. It is the goal of the King Library and Archives to bring together information about groups which are successfully employing nonviolent techniques throughout the world and to create a network for the sharing of information about constructive, nonviolent social change. In cooperation with other components of the King Center, the knowledge stored in the Library and Archives will be spread throughout the network itself and also to the world at large through publications, seminars, and training programs. The message is a simple one--nonviolence works!

NOTES

[1]Bond/Ryder Associates, Minutes of Design Committee Meeting, Atlanta, Georgia, May 4, 1970, p. 2.

[2]Martin Luther King, Jr., Where Do We Go From Here: Chaos or Community? (New York: Harper and Row, 1967), p. 184.

[3]Report of the National Commission on the Causes and Prevention of Violence (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1970), p. 345.

OF ARCHIVISTS, THE DECLARATION, THE CONSTITUTION AND 1984

Martin I. Elzy

A happy coincidence draws the attention of Americans to the Declaration of Independence, the Constitution, and George Orwell's 1984 within a twelve year period. Seldom has the United States had such an opportunity in a time of relative peace to consider the basic liberties upon which the nation was established. It is also an appropriate occasion to compare the three documents to determine what they suggest concerning the philosophy and ethics of archivists.

The Declaration of Independence has two phrases which pertain most closely to the work of archivists in the list of "injuries and usurpations" by which the King intended to establish "an absolute Tyranny". One is tangential to the role of archivists: "He has erected a multitude of New Offices, and sent hither swarms of Officers to harass our People, and eat out their substance." It is an inescapable fact that most archivists are bureaucrats working in larger institutions, whether a religious order, a corporation, a university, or a government. To be an archivist, particularly one working for the government, is to withstand the barbed taunts of "bureaucrat" from an unhappy public. The public must be persuaded that the archival role is important to them. Indeed, archivists often provide the college transcripts that allow employment, or the baptismal certificates that allow marriage in the church, or proof of payments that allow participation in a pension program.

The signers of the Declaration of Independence recognized the value of records in another of their complaints about the king. "He has called together legislative bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable, and distant from the depository of their Public Records, for the sole Purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measures."

When the Constitution was written a few years after the Declaration of Independence, the value of public records was still recognized. Article I concerning legislative powers provides, "Each House shall keep a Journal of its Proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such Parts as may in their Judgment require Secrecy; and the Yeas and Nays of the Members of either House on any question shall, at the Desire of one fifth of those Present, be entered on the Journal."

It was clear that records of legislative deliberations were to be available to all people of the United States so that they might more knowledgably serve as enlightened citizens. Legislators were to be accountable. Members of the legislature would have their votes on controversial issues recorded for all to see if only a very small part of the legislative body demanded it. And yet some secrecy was to be allowed, although the circumstances were perilously unexplained.

The journal is mentioned later in Article I providing that if a president refused to sign a bill "he shall return it, with his Objections, to that House in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the Objections at large on their Journal, and proceed to reconsider it." In this instance, if a president chose to overrule the deliberative decision of the House and Senate, he too had to put his position and reasoning on paper before the public. He was held accountable.

Recognizing the role that taxation played in the alienation of the colonies from Great Britain, Article I also provides that "a regular Statement and Account of the Receipts and Expenditures of all public Money shall be published from time to time." Again, the issue of accountability was emphasized. The people of a democracy must have a full written record of the collection and disbursement of public money.

Article II stretched accountability to include the bureaucrats of the executive branch. The president "... may require the Opinion, in writing, of the pricipal Officer in each of the executive Departments, upon any Subject relating to the Duties of their respective Offices ...."

Article IV recognized the importance of the public record, as something immutable that all parties of a dispute must accept: "Full Faith and Credit shall be given in each State to the public Acts, Records, and judicial Proceedings of every other State. And the Congress may by general Laws prescribe the Manner in which such Acts, Records, and Proceedings shall be proved, and the Effect thereof."

The twenty-fifth amendment to the Constitution also calls for a written record, though more to prevent disputes than to assure accountability. The term "written declaration" appears six times to describe the means by which presidential disability may be determined and authority transferred.

Lest too much be made of accountability in writing and the absolute value of the written record, the sixth of the Bill of Rights provides that defendants in criminal cases shall be entitled to confront prosecution witnesses. It is impossible to cross-examine a written record, and the authors of the article recognized that a criminal defendant deserved more than written testimony against him.

Perhaps the most important constitutional amendment to archivists, and among the most important of the Bill of Rights, is the fourth: "The right of people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated ... ." Here is the protection of the privacy of personal letters and written records of all types.

In the society described in 1984, no such protection exists. Hero Winston Smith is an archivist who works in the Records Department at the Ministry of Truth, the purpose of which is to distort history at the whim of the ruling regime. (There are not a lot of archivists as major characters in fiction, although the villain in Winter Kills, a recent movie concerning the assassination of a handsome, young, liberal American president, is an archivist.)

The party slogan is "Who controls the past controls the future: who controls the present controls the past." Winston is part of that control of the past. His job is to alter or "rectify" old issues of the Times. When the government wishes changes in old newspapers, the orders are passed to Winston and others like him, whose task it is to write replacement articles. The old issues are then reprinted and reprints are used to replace all existing old issues, which are destroyed. This is done not only to newspapers, but to any literature or documentation that might run counter to the current party line.

An example of Smith's work demonstrates his role concerning those who commit Thoughtcrime. Those guilty of Thoughtcrime normally disappear in the middle of the night, never to be seen again. To avoid embarrassing questions, any evidence that the Thoughtcriminal ever existed must be "rectified". All newspaper references to the person and all birth, marriage, tax, employment, and medical records are altered or eliminated to remove the Thoughtcriminal

from existence.

Even physical evidence of the past often must be altered. Street names, cornerstones, statues, films, and photographs are among the artifacts that must be "rectified". In order to have villains against which the party can measure itself, some people are not eliminated but discredited. A bureaucrat whose factory has produced well in the past, but who has fallen from favor, would find the past production records meticulously altered.

Although his work is the most satisfying part of his life, Winston has become disenchanted with the party and with his role as an expurgator of history. In part, his alienation is for personal reasons. He can barely remember his own youth, his family. With no personal records of his own past, he cannot be sure that his memory is correct; he is not even sure of the year of his own birth. In part, his disillusionment is political. The party alters history so that it is impossible to compare the present with the past. Winston believes there must have been an earlier, better time, but he cannot remember the past in detail, and he knows the written records to be falsified.

Winston has begun to challenge the party (he hopes secretly) by keeping a diary, so that he can make a personal imprint on the future. He knows the diary will never serve a useful purpose, but only lead to his downfall. Enter the woman. Julia becomes a helpmate in Thoughtcrime and even conspiracy. Her attitude is more cynical, less philosophical. Of the past, Julia cares nothing. Of the future, Julia cares nothing. Winston finally persuades Julia to join the conspiracy of The Brotherhood, but they are quickly imprisoned.

The true charge against Winston, the deviation that causes his lapse into conspiracy, is that he is

aware of history. It becomes clear that just as the party controls records, so it intends to control memory, thus totally controlling the past. Winston had earlier pondered his own sanity. He had consoled himself that he was not insane to believe that the past could not actually be altered. Imprisonment and torture and mind control eventually lead to Winston's surrender: "He accepted everything. The past was alterable. The past never had been altered."

Some recent books, such as Ernest R. May's "Lessons" of the Past, Frances FitzGerald's America Revised, and Oscar Handlin's Truth in History have analyzed the use of the past in American society. Historians and archivists should also study Big Brother's use of the past, and the heroic archivist of 1984 who addresses the role of the keeper of the records of the past.

ARCHIVES AND THE COLLEGE WORK STUDY PROGRAM

Gregory S. Hunter and JoAnn Heaney Hunter

Many college and university archivists already are familiar with the College Work Study Program (CWSP), a federally funded, campus-based financial aid program providing assistance to students with a demonstrable financial need, defined as the total cost of education for a year minus the resources the student has available to meet these costs. Under CWSP the federal government pays up to eighty percent of a student's salary, and the employing institution or agency provides the remainder. In this way many campus offices, including college and university archives, have received the assistance of well-educated people at a fraction of the usual cost of such services.

A great many people, however, mistakenly believe that CWSP is limited to on-campus employment. On the contrary, any non-profit institution performing work considered to be in the public interest, or any governmental agency (federal, state, or local) is permitted to hire student workers under CWSP from a local college of university. While budget cutbacks enacted by the Reagan administration will decrease total federal funding for CWSP, it still remains a viable resource for archives, one worthy of further investigation.

First, the administrator of an archives that may be eligible for CWSP should contact the director of financial aid at a nearby college or university. One of the advantages of CWSP from the student's point of view is that by working on campus he or she saves a great deal of commuting time. Therefore students will be more likely to accept off-campus employment if it

is relatively close to their college or university.

However, once an institution's eligibility for CWSP has been established, do not rule out contacting the directors of financial aid at other area colleges. The federal government provides funding for CWSP on the basis of specific requests by the various colleges and universities. As a result, some colleges may have more money available for CWSP than do their neighboring schools, and an archives may be able to entice a student from a more distant institution by offering a higher salary.

There is some flexibility in the CWSP regulations. Because of this, it is necessary for the college and the employing institution to negotiate a contract for off-campus CWSP employment. Usually, the director of financial aid or college work study coordinator is the person to deal with in negotiating this contract. Among the areas that should be discussed frankly are hourly wage, educational level of the student, and type of work to be performed.

Many college and universities pay only the minimum wage to their own student workers. To interest a student in working off-campus, an archivist probably will have to offer more than the minimum wage in order to compensate for travel costs and the loss of convenience. However, since an institution will only be paying approximately twenty percent of the student's total salary, the increased cost to the institution should be minimal.

Closely related to hourly wage is the desired educational level of the student worker. It is another common fallacy that only undergraduate students are eligible for CWSP. On the contrary, graduate students, and even those in professional schools like law and medicine, can be paid by CWSP, if they have sufficient financial need. To hire graduate

students, however, an archives will probably have to offer a higher salary than for an undergraduate student.

A third factor is the type of work which the CWSP student will perform. It would be possible, for example, to control an agency's clerical expenses by hiring CWSP undergraduate students to do some of the filing and typing, provided that these students do not eliminate or displace regular workers. If an archives is fortunate enough, however, to be located near a university offering a graduate level program in archival management, it may be possible to hire graduate students with some professional training, people capable of arranging and describing archival collections. This has been done with great success at the United Negro College Fund.

There is one caveat, however: The federal government will not always pay for employment for which the student receives academic credit. "If a practicum or internship is usually completed without remuneration, the practicum or internship would not qualify under CWS. On the other hand, if most student complete this requirement in a position where the students receive remuneration, the student may be employed under CWS." (New York State Financial Aid Administrators Association 1981-1982 Training Manual)

No matter what level student an archives hires, there will be limitations on the number of hours that he or she can work. The employing institution sets the maximum number of hours to be worked per week, taking into account the potential effect of a combination of work and study hours on a student's progress and health, and the extent of a student's financial need. Because of this limitation, an institution may find it desirable to employ to CWSP students, if possible, in order to maintain flexibility in scheduling and adequate office coverage during the school year.

A second limitation involves the individual student, rather than the employing institution. Federal regulations specify that a student may earn only enough money under CWSP to meet his or her financial need. In dealing with this limitation, employing institutions usually follow one of three approaches. Some limit the student's hours throughout the year so that he or she will not earn more than his or her financial need. Others prefer to have the student work the maximum number of hours and, if he or she exceeds the CWSP maximum, keep the student on the institution's payroll for the remainder of the academic year, paying one hundred percent of the student's salary. Finally, some institutions terminate the student when his or her award is exhausted and hire another student. The situation at each employing institution will determine which is the better approach. Naturally, any questions regarding a student's work and earning status should be discussed with the school's college work study coordinator.

The extension of CWSP to archival institutions on a wider scale would be beneficial for all concerned. Student workers would be exposed to settings other than the usual academic environment; would receive valuable work experience; and might even become interested in remaining a part of the archival profession. Colleges and universities would improve their relations with local community organizations and institutions and might also identify new areas where graduates could be employed. And archival institutions would receive low-cost, quality student assistance; would build better relationships with colleges and universities; and would increase the universe of people aware of the importance of the preservation and use of historical records.

PAKS AND ARCHIVAL EDUCATION: PART I: AN OVERVIEW*

Nicholas C. Burckel

Problems in Archives Kits (Chicago: Society of American Archivists, 1980--): PAK I: Appraisal (1980), $17 members, $20 others; PAK II: Security (1980), $17 members, $20 others; PAK III: Starting An Archives (1980), $11 members, $14 others; PAK IV: Archival Processing Costs (1981), $12 members, $15 others; PAK V: Can You Afford Records Management? (1981), $17 members, $20 others; PAK VI: Developing A Brochure (1981), $8 members, $11 others.

The Society of American Archivists' (SAA) latest entry in the field of continuing education is a series of PAKs--Problems in Archives Kits. Although PAKs are available for individual purchase, this handy six-PAK of kits developed thus far costs a total of $82 for members or $110 for non-members. The SAA Bookcase describes them as "a new publications service in a flexible format which may include reports, manuals, forms, sound tapes, and other materials chosen for their usefulness." Although the materials included in each PAK differ, each offers a ready collection of diverse materials on a given topic, saving the user the time and effort otherwise required to gather the information.

Describing the format of the PAKs does not, however, explain their purpose. Since the exact

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*Part II, a review of individual PAK kits, will appear in the next issue of Georgia Archive.

purpose of the PAKs is not stated, either in the PAKs themselves or in SAA's promotional information, it is difficult for a reviewer to judge them against the standard set by their creators. If the audience to whom they are directed is the practitioner with archival experience and education, then most fall short of the mark because they generally do not provide sufficient detail to make their purchase worthwhile. If, on the other hand, the audience is the beginning archivist in a small shop, then the PAKs risk confusing the novice who needs unambiguous direction, not the diversity of opinion among professionals on even basic issues such as appraisal, records management, and security. A tyro attempting to seek basic archival education through partial reliance on PAKs is like the bewildered undergraduate history student confronting for the first time the historiography of the causes of the Civil War. Overwhelmed with the range of opinion and analysis from the experts, the student turns helplessly to the survey text in hopes of finding certainty and clarity.

The value one ascribes to PAKs probably varies with the attitude one has on the future direction of archival education. Those who wish to develop a full-blown master's level degree in archival administration as the proper professional credential probably will view these PAKs as a band-aid approach when radical surgery is necessary. For them, only when archival positions can be advertised as requiring a master's in archival administration, from an SAA-accredited education program, will archivists truly have arrived professionally. For those at the other extreme, who see archival work as a craft to be learned at the master's knee in an apprentice program, the kits have limited utility because they lack the hands-on experience. For those struggling with the current realities that relegate archives to a relatively unimportant cultural fringe benefit of an affluent society, however, PAKs may be an important way of increasing on-the-job training and a way

of more effectively using the limited financial resources available for continuing professional education. For the price of a single round-trip coach fare from Chicago to San Francisco, an institution could buy two six-PAKs and the SAA Basic Manual Series.

PAKs might well serve as a point of departure for classroom discussions or for supplemental readings in regular, accredited courses in archival administration. They might also be used to disseminate information quickly on a rather specialized subject or topical issue. PAKs might, for example, deal with subjects too narrow to be treated in a special subject issue of American Archivist or subjects so topical that much of their relevance would be lost in the lengthy editorial process required for formal publication.

Unfortunately, some of the initial PAKs do not appear to meet either need. Appraisal and security, the topics of PAKs I and II, are hardy perennials and are important enough to have generated two widely-acclaimed contributions in the Basic Manual Series. Articles have appeared in the last five years on starting an archives, the contents of PAK III, including those for religious groups, businesses, and colleges and universities. More recent PAKs hold greater promise, however. The solid literature on archival processing costs, for instance, is exceedingly thin, and PAK IV dealing with that thorny issue is a practical contribution to efforts to measure and quantify archival services and procedures. PAK V explores the pros and cons of adopting a records management program as part of the archives on college and university campuses. While records management has also been a regular topic at annual meetings, its linkage with an established university archives is a relatively recent issue.

PAKs appear to be modeled to some extent on the successful SPEC kits published by the Office of

Management Studies of the Association of Research Libraries. Thus far, Systems and Procedures Exchange Center (SPEC) kits number seventy-five, date from 1973, and cost $15 a kit, half that price for regular subscribers.* While the SPEC kits are restricted to printed material, they do provide a brief flyer introducing the topic and presenting the results of a survey of ARL libraries. A similar introductory overview for each PAK topic would be helpful, but if that proves too time-consuming to develop, then at least an annotated select bibliography should accompany each PAK.

Before too many more PAKs are produced, SAA's Education Committee may need to assess their success to date, measured not merely in terms of sales. Although the early PAKs have been a financial success, the PAK concept still needs review. Early sales may merely indicate that, properly marketed, anything sells. It is not clear that archivists know exactly what they are buying when they order a PAK. If the contents of the PAKs were more clearly listed in the advertisements, then the potential user could decide whether or not to make the purchase. Without knowing the contents, however, caveat emptor.

What is needed, at least, is feedback from users of PAKs. All SPEC kits include a brief one-page questionnaire asking users how they used the materials, how helpful the kit was for that purpose, and soliciting suggestions for future kits. While the review should not be so cumbersome that the chance for quick response to archivists' needs is unnecessarily delayed, some quality control and evaluation should be built into the process, if this form of

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*The kit most relevant to archivists is the one on Special Collections, reviewed in Georgia Archive, 9 (Spring, 1981): 118-20.

publication is to continue.

What are the criteria, for instance, stated or implied, for determining the subjects and contents of PAKs? One possible criterion, other than those suggested above, might be that the PAK include a significant amount of material not routinely available to most archivists. Instead of taping sessions at annual meetings of the Society, thus perhaps reducing the attraction for members to attend the annual meeting and its sessions, sessions at other professional meetings should be covered. While most archivists can be expected to be aware of the activities and programs of the SAA, the only national professional organization for archivists, they might not be aware of programs of regional archival organizations and allied professional organizations. Any one of a half dozen regional archival organizations may well provide information of interest to a wider audience than those who could attend the regional meeting or who were even aware of its sessions.

This in fact suggests an ideal way for SAA and the regionals to cooperate to their mutual benefit. A small task force or subcommittee of the education committee could review the printed program of each regional in advance of its meeting to determine which sessions offer the greatest promise for use as a PAK. Those sessions could be taped by the regionals, with the approval of the session participants, and their papers and taped discussions forwarded to the committee for review of audio quality as well as intellectual content. A minimum number of PAKs could then be prepared with the profit, if any, divided between SAA and the regional. This would provide a service to all archivists and give the regionals some publicity and an incentive to produce top quality, relevant programs. It would also allow SAA to control the quality and not have to rely on its annual meetings to produce the PAKs as well as likely articles for the American Archivist.

One could easily expand this idea to allied professional organizations, including the American Association for State and Local History, the Organization of American Historians, the American Historical Association, the Oral History Association, the American Library Association, and the Association of Records Managers and Administrators. A review of the annual programs of each of these organizations, especially those in history, reveals a number of sessions of possible interest to archivists, but ones they would not be likely to attend, especially if they chose to attend the annual meeting of the Society and of their regional archival association. Some of those might be taped as experiments, with SAA bearing the risk of loss, but reserving the right to profits.

If PAKs are to continue, and that question needs to be answered first, then the Society should take a more careful look at how the PAKs can be improved and systematized. The existing PAKs illustrate the need for some form of quality control. The sound quality of the oral tapes is very uneven. Those that generally succeed best are those involving a panel or seminar seated around a table within a short distance of the microphone. Sessions with questions from the audience caused obvious problems for small cassette recorders, and panelists and speakers or program chairs apparently were not instructed to repeat the audience questions. The auditor must therefore surmise from the panelist's response what the question must have been.

Some PAKs include both a tape recording of the formal part of the session and a copy of the papers presented; others provide only the papers and taped discussion. Where copies of papers are actually included in the PAK, it seems unnecessary to provide a tape of the papers being read. While the early tapes are accompanied by a brief list of who is speaking on each topic, some of the session tapes are not. A list of the questions asked and the names of the

major respondents from the panel would also be helpful to the user.

The sound quality of the tapes, however, is only a part of the larger problem of the quality of the PAKs. Even if these aids to learning are produced as quickly and inexpensively as possible, they still bear the implicit imprimatur of the Society. For that reason alone, better quality control is necessary. Just as some irrelevant discussions were apparently deleted from the tapes of the appraisal and security seminars, so, too, the discussions recorded from other sessions could have been tightened up. Not to do so dilutes the significance of those portions that are salient and deserve attention. It simply discourages the listener, who must listen to the entire tape in order to glean the major points of discussion. The papers that accompany PAKs should also be at least edited to eliminate misspellings, misinformation, and undocumented statements of questionable validity.

Volume does not compensate for a lack of quality archival literature. Cranking out more publications in unfinished form may make it more difficult for the incoming archivist to separate the wheat from the chaff. Because he or she may not have the knowledge or experience to evaluate the wide range of available publications--PAKs, manuals, monographs, journals--it will be more difficult to learn the necessary information in the best sequence. Some editing, therefore, either by the session chair or the appropriate SAA subcommittee should be required.

As this review demonstrates, it is easier to criticize what has been done than to produce an alternative satisfactory to everyone. An understanding of the evolution and development of the PAKs should, therefore, temper any criticism. Anyone who has worked on the necessarily all-volunteer Society committees, task forces, and professional affinity groups knows how slowly they move. Consensus is achieved only after frequent meetings, full discussions,

and adequate time. None of those characteristics, unfortunately, is necessarily efficient or fast. In an effort to respond to the Society's needs as quickly yet inexpensively as possible, the Chicago staff has developed these PAKs. Had any one of them, much less all of them, been required to pass muster with a large committee, geographically dispersed, the first PAK, no doubt, would still be on the drawing board. That the national office saw a need and stepped in to fill it is to be applauded.

An already heavily-taxed and thinly-staffed Society headquarters has managed to sandwich in this publications experiment among all the other duties of coordinating the affairs of a 2,300 member professional organization. In fact, because the PAKs are an experiment, it was impossible to estimate accurately the number of individual PAKs to duplicate, and the staff had to wait for a certain number of orders to accumulate before it became economical to reproduce the material. That problem can be controlled to a certain extent by limiting the availability of the PAKs or selling them only for a certain length of time. The staff has apparently considered this option and may soon discontinue sales of PAKs I and II. That also makes sense from another point of view as well. If the PAKs evolved to meet short-term needs not already adequately addressed by available publications, then full-scale publications on those topics should have a chance to catch up by the time the respective PAKs are discontinued. If PAKs address current or topical needs, then as the popularity of the topic declines, so too does the need for the PAK. It is to be hoped, however, that some copies of all PAKs (perhaps available for loan at cost) will continue to be accessible to archivists.

Future PAKs will soon appear, including one on "Records Management for Religious Archivists", based on a session at the 1980 annual meeting, the source for two of the six existing PAKs. Another PAK--"Local Records Programs"--will apparently include

H. G. Jones's Local Government Records, the State Historical Society of Wisconsin's Municipal Records Manual, and a local records manual from the California State Archives. Both topics undoubtedly deserve attention, but on what basis are they, and earlier PAKs, being selected? If the idea behind PAKs is to produce a useful product with a minimum of red tape, then the two-year experiment should be ready for review.

Such a review should not result in abolition of a valuable service, but in the enhancement of it. Allowing knowledgable archivists to edit PAKs, encouraging regional organizations to develop sessions on topics that might make suitable PAKs, continually evaluating user reaction to PAKs, and soliciting suggestions from the Society's Professional Affinity Groups, need not add to the costs or time of production, but they may provide some needed quality controls. The experimentation and innovation evident in the PAK idea needs to be encouraged, but as with any experiment, the results need to be analyzed. Now is the time.

BOOK REVIEWS

RELIGIOUS ARCHIVES: AN INTRODUCTION. Written by August R. Suelflow. (Chicago: Society of American Archivists, 1980. Pp. 1-56. Bibliography, appendices, sample forms. Paper. SAA members $5/others $7.)

Why should the series of manuals published by the Society of American Archivists include one on religious archives? Is there a basic difference in the manner in which the principles of provenance and arrangement are applied in a state archives and in a church archives? To be sure, the subject matters in the offices of creation are different, but archivists do not arrange records according to subject. Principles for arrangement should not vary in any great degree--or so it appears.

Obviously the Society of American Archivists acted in response to the many requests for such a manual on religious archives by the large number of people who are custodians of religious records. For at least twelve years the Church Archives Committee (later the Religious Archives Committee) discussed the need for a manual on religious archives and sought to outline the contents that should be included. As a church archivist, I appreciate the response of the Council of the Society of American Archivists to the concerns of this segment of the Society. Yet the question remains. What can be said or should be said about the care of religious archives that is not already more fully examined in the other manuals published by the Society?

For whom then is this manual written? Pastor Suelflow, it seems to me, had a rather difficult assignment. How does a writer speak to the situation in the more than "500 religious archives and

historical institutions functioning at various levels" referred to in the opening sentences of this manual? He or she cannot. Religious archives are established and unestablished, funded and not funded, well-staffed and poorly staffed, adequately housed and less adequately housed. Thus it is. The more professional religious archivist has access to a larger corpus of literature. The less experienced one may find the compression of a great deal of material into such a small space somewhat confusing. It might have been more profitable to use a "case study" method to illustrate how the religious archivist applies the general archival principles to his/her situation. Yet this would have necessitated the choosing of a structure of one church, and problems could have resulted from this approach. In any case, the various churches must supplement this manual with more practical guidelines.

Pastor Suelflow is a professional archivist who has been active in the Society of American Archivists for many years. He is a fellow of the Soceity and a former member of the council. He is a competent professional and has worked diligently in establishing an archival program in his church. For many new religious archivists he has been a source of strength and encouragement. In this manual he has given a concise overview of the problems in religious archives, discussed the general principles of archival management, and described related activities such as oral history and museums. I think that his assignment may have been somewhat more involved than those of us in the older Church Archives Committee considered in our deliberations over nearly a dozen years. It appears that in our conversations we were less realistic in our plans for a manual than we might have been. It may be that with the publication of the basic manuals by the Society of American Archivists there is no need for a specific on one religious archives unless a radically

different approach is followed.

Archivist of the Episcopal Church
V. Nelle Bellamy, Ph.D.

ARCHIVISTS AND MACHINE-READABLE RECORDS. Edited by Carolyn L. Geda, Erik W. Austin, and Francis X. Blouin, Jr. (Chicago: Society of American Archivists, 1980. Pp. 1-248. Paper. SAA members $7/others $10.)

In this publication the Society of American Archivists reproduces proceedings of a conference on the archival management of machine-readable records held at Ann Arbor, Michigan in February 1979. The text offers its readers a wide-ranging report on the current state of machine-readable data management, a history of archival involvement in the field, and a compelling argument for greater participation by archivists in future technical developments. The conference was the culmination of efforts by Jerome Clubb (executive director of the Inter-University Consortium for Political and Social Research), Robert E. Warner (Archivist of the United States and former director of the Bentley Historical Library), Meyer Fishbein of the National Archives and Records Service, and Ann Morgan Campbell (executive director of the Society of American Archivists) to bring together an international panel of experts in the area of machine-readable archives. For their parts, Carolyn Geda, Erik Austin and Francis X. Blouin, Jr. did an outstanding job in the editing and preparation of this volume.

The contributors' papers are grouped into sections by common theme, including: research opportunities; archival programs for machine-readable records; management and dissemination of machine-readable data for social research; developments in computer technology; and confidentiality and privacy.

The volume concludes with a summary section that concerns itself with the implications for the archival profession of technological and social change, particularly in the areas of data creation, communication, and storage.

The first group of papers suggests a number of new research areas for those working in university and government records. Meyer Fishbein observes that the quantities of computer data created by institutions, agencies and businesses results in unparalelled appraisal and description problems for archivists. He challenges researchers to assist archivists in the development of selection and retention criteria for these records. In the section on archival programs, Harold Naugler (Public Archives of Canada), Charles Dollar (NARS), and Michael Roper (Public Record Office, UK) describe their respective approaches to the problems of computer record appraisal, preservation, and dissemination. Thomas Mills of the New York State Archives, calls upon archivists to contribute to the decision-making process concerning the disposition of machine-readable records at the time of their creation. Similarly, William Rofes of IBM advocates interdisciplinary cooperation among concerned organizations towards the creation and maintenance of automated records in accessible forms.

The third section of this volume outlines two cooperative efforts involving data sharing, data base maintenance, and hardware and software maintenance. Carolyn Geda and Erik Austin of ICPSR and William Gammell of the Roper Center describe the history, operation, and problems of their respective agencies in this context. Contributors to the section, developments in computer technology, describe some of the exciting innovations in the areas of mass storage and peripherals that promise to ease the archivist's tasks. However, Gregory Marks warns that the immediate outlook is for increased technical diversity with corresponding problems of

hardware incompatibility and software inadequacy. Richard A. Volz and Bernard Goller discuss two advances of particular interest to archivists: the development of inexpensive mass storage capacities in computer systems, and the evolution of software designs that may eventually serve the archivist as MEDLINE and MUMPS serve the medical community.

In the final group of proceedings papers, Judith Rowe notes that recent United States legislation has tended to encourage institutions to place global restrictions on their automated data. She urges persuasively that archivists should acquire data management skills to enable them to protect confidentiality while making valuable research data available to users. Richard Hoffbart is particularly concerned that data collected by private consultants for public policy evaluation find its way into archives where it would be readily accessible. Finally, Paul Zeisset describes Census Bureau procedures designed to allow important research to continue while protecting the privacy of individuals. In closing the proceedings volume, Clubb, Warner, and Blouin urge the archival profession to acquire sufficient computer literacy so that we may influence the development of new technology, the creation of machine-readable records, their servicing, and the policies affecting their use.

Although contributors to ARCHIVISTS AND MACHINE-READABLE RECORDS are all specialists, each succeeds in addressing his or her complex area of responsibility in laymen's terms. This book is an excellent training tool for those seeking a survey of technical information and practical applications as they relate to the management of machine-readable records in an archival setting. The editors have organized the volume so that the sections follow logically and flow into one another. The archival profession is, in short, well served by this informative and carefully

prepared work. It is a credit to all those involved in its publication.

Assistant University Archivist Anne Sims
Southern Illinois University

ARCHIVES AND MANUSCRIPTS: EXHIBITS. Written by Gail Farr Casterline. (Chicago: Society of American Archivists, 1980. Pp. 1-70. Bibliography, appendices, diagrams, illustrations and photographs. Paper. SAA members $5/others $7.)

ARCHIVES AND MANUSCRIPTS: EXHIBITS, the latest addition in the Society of American Archivists Basic Manual Series by Gail Farr Casterline is a very useful and practical publication. This manual, not meant to be a definitive guide, will serve as an excellent beginning point for anyone who wishes to use documentary material in exhibits. Ms. Casterline's immediate audience is archivists. EXHIBITS, however, should prove beneficial to anyone wishing to understand how archival material can be used to enhance exhibits. Overall, ARCHIVES AND MANUSCRIPTS: EXHIBITS will be a valuable tool to everyone. Ms. Casterline has outlined each chapter in a clear, logical order that can be followed to accomplish a successful exhibit. Beginning with the simple question, "Why Exhibits?," Ms. Casterline discusses planning and development, conservation, design and technique, program coordination, and administrative considerations. Additional material such as where to go for help, supplies and equipment, sample forms, and a bibliography, are covered in appendices. While it is not included, an annotated bibliography would have been useful.

The strength of this manual is that it has been published at all and that it does not become immersed in the battle which so often rages between archivists

on whether or not to exhibit. Once Ms. Casterline raises the question of "Why should we exhibit?" she quickly, efficiently, and quite effectively states her reasoning and presents a very admirable case in favor of archival exhibits. While EXHIBITS will not meet with total acceptance from staunch opponents of archival exhibits, those in opposition are possibly the ones who would benefit the most from just such an approach.

The chapter on planning and development is perhaps the best section in the manual. Most failures in exhibits of any type usually occur as a result of insufficient planning and improper development. In the chapter she deals with defining your audience, choosing the right topic for your institution, organizing your time in order to accomplish all that will be needed prior to completion and opening of the exhibit, selecting material appropriate for the exhibit, and combining manuscript and archival material and graphics in a manner which will be pleasing, attractive, and understandable to your visitor.

The chapter dealing with design and technique includes a great deal of "nuts and bolts" information. Indeed, the entire publication is an excellent practical guide, and this section is of particular note. Ms. Casterline presents design, layout, mounting procedures, matting and framing, and labeling in an easily understandable fashion.

Like many other exhibit publications, however, Ms. Casterline has relied on illustrations that demonstrate her particular point but, at the same time, demonstrate other bad exhibit techniques. One illustration which shows a young man stooping to read a label represents an excellent example of a primary cause of museum fatigue. However, it was selected to illustrate how label text can be augmented by additional material and graphics. Another illustration selected to demonstrate the use of toning and cropping

photographs depicts an exhibit that is too busy to be effective. Simplicity and good design are not opposing points of view. Many museums have been ruined by the "chrome and plexi" look and have been over-designed with the result that visitors cannot concentrate on the objects being exhibited. These distractions should be avoided in archival exhibits as well as museum exhibits.

One important area of interest which has been included in EXHIBITS but unfortunately is ignored by far too many professionals is program coordination. Too often an exhibit is produced to wither on the vine for want of public attention. So much can be accomplished through posters, catalogues, publicity, and coordinated events and activities. By following Ms. Casterline's examples the reader can discover "means of sharing exhibits with present, distant, and future audiences." This is a very good thought and one worth holding in mind when developing any exhibit.

At first glance, the title of the manual, ARCHIVES & MANUSCRIPTS: EXHIBITS, might lead some to think a great mistake has been made. Everyone is aware that archives retain and preserve their collections for research and that museums exhibit their collections. However, thankfully, there is no mistake. EXHIBITS is a welcome "how-to" manual for which the Society and Ms. Casterline should be congratulated. As Ms. Casterline admits in her opening statement, this publication "is bound to raise some eyebrows." Hopefully, it will also serve to open many eyes to new opportunities in dealing with their collections, their public, and their colleagues.

Exhibits Workshop Coordinator Pete Lapaglia
American Association for State and
Local History

WOMEN'S HISTORY SOURCES: A GUIDE TO ARCHIVES AND MANUSCRIPT COLLECTIONS IN THE UNITED STATES, VOL. I/ COLLECTIONS, VOL. II/INDEX. Edited by Andrea Hinding, Ames Sheldon Bower, and Clarke A. Chambers. (New York: R. R. Bowker Co., 1979. Vol. I: pp. ix-1114; Vol. II: pp. vii-391. Hardcover, sold only as set $175.)

Requiring more than five years of the most exacting research and literally countless hours of dedicated, editorial labor, WOMEN'S HISTORY SOURCES: A GUIDE TO ARCHIVES AND MANUSCRIPT COLLECTIONS IN THE UNITED STATES has finally appeared. So ambitious is the publication, so useful is its design, that a whole range of new possibilities for fundamental research in women's history has now opened. Covering a 350-year period, the compendium offers an unparalleled opportunity for all sorts of investigators to develop new sources and data. While some of the material has

been available in typescript for two years, the completed guide with its sophisticated index reveals the full utility of this massive effort of compilation.

In the past, both the character of the traditional sources and the ways they have been indexed have served to obscure women's materials. For example, women's diaries, letters, and journals which contain information about daily life are often hidden under a catch-all category of "family papers," listed only under a male name. Likewise, certain institutional or organizational collections may include women's collections, but traditional indexing methods do not make this fact obvious. The World War I Council of National Defense, for example, contains the papers of the Committee on Women's Defense. Then there are collections of denominational world mission boards, containing personal reminiscences and papers from countless women missionaries. Papers of famous women have always been accessible in archival collections; it is the little-known but still important women, the waiting-to-be-rediscovered women, as well as social history, family history, and popular culture studies that are given such an impetus by these volumes.

Volume I lists and describes 18,026 collections of non-book materials in 1,586 locations in the U.S. and is arranged alphabetically by state and city. The source list includes over 150 oral history collections, 36 photograph collections, the more usual papers and manuscripts, and film archives. Descriptions always give span dates of persons and organizations, as well as the size and kind of collection and what restrictions are placed on its access.

The two volumes are easy to use together, for they include clear prefatory material on how this reference work may best be exploited. There are also instructions on archival usage and a glossary.

A clear cross-referencing system was devised so that a woman's married name(s), pseudonym, nickname, and given name will all lead to the same source. In as many cases as possible, the multiple names are sorted out and assigned dates by an ingenious (and very labor-intensive) method of cross-checking correspondents, places, subjects, etc. The result is a listing of thousands of women's names and dates, most of whom are not included in existing sources. If one wants to know more than simply what is available in a particular city or university, then the index volume is essential. Here one finds listed not only every proper name used in the descriptions of the collections of the first volume, but also listings of professions, topics, themes, and genres. Bold-face type designates a collection solely on that topic or person.

In using the sources, I found much factual information I was unaware of (relationships, works, etc.), at least twenty research topics of interest and importance to me, and many exciting possibilities for student research. There are some gaps in the listings, as was bound to be the case. For instance, important manuscript collections of women evangelists and preachers active in the early days of the abolition movement from the African Methodist Episcopal Church at Wilburforce University and in Philadelphia are not listed. There are other collections missing, no doubt because certain archivists and curators were not contacted by the survey team. For example, neither the collections in East Tennessee State University's Archives of Appalachia nor Appalachian State University's Oral History Collection appear in this volume.

The other weakness of this work is more serious but less easily corrected. WOMEN'S HISTORY SOURCES does not, and cannot, get at that material which has never been collected or written down--the non-prominent woman whose papers have been lost, the life of

the anonymous "Interface Woman." Still, with the inclusion of the oral history, photograph and film archives, the listings will go a long way toward providing the material for the writing of the history of women's lives and work in this country. As editor Andrea Hinding says in the preface, WOMEN'S HISTORY SOURCES "is a compendium of women's experience in the United States. It describes women who were arsonists, astronomers, attorneys, botanists, legislators, madams, paleobotanists, physicians, and stagecoach drivers, along with those whose contributions were made as wives, mothers, homemakers, and leaders of or participants in local civic and cultural organizations. It describes women who were conventional and those who were eccentric, those who promoted suffrage while opposing birth control and others who did the reverse" (p. xi).

Coordinator, Women's Studies Margaret McFadden
Appalachian State University

SYSTEMS AND PROCEDURES EXCHANGE CENTER: PREPARING FOR EMERGENCIES AND DISASTERS, KIT 69. Prepared by the Office of Management Studies, Association of Research Libraries. (Washington, D.C.: Association of Research Libraries, 1980. Pp. 1-109. Illustrations, sample forms. Paper. $7.50 ARL members/$15.00 others.)

Planning to prevent disasters and planning to minimize the effects of disasters is the cheapest and most straightforward program that an archives or library can implement to preserve its collections for future generations. PREPARING FOR EMERGENCIES AND DISASTERS gives a brief and incomplete introduction to this planning process.

This ARL SPEC KIT consists of a two-page introduction and a collection of eleven planning documents and three case histories. Many of these source documents are excerpts from longer reports. The availability of

the original documents is not noted, and the lack of adequate citations for many of these source documents would make their acquisition difficult. For instance, the Cornell University Emergency Manual, which has been available to the public in the past, is not given a complete citation. The introduction to the SPEC KIT is quite good considering its brevity, and it should be read with careful attention. However, the extremely brief format of the introduction has led to a serious omission: The crucial distinction between planning for life safety and planning for the protection of collections has been missed. Life safety planning, or emergency planning as it is usually called, carries a great burden of moral, financial, and legal liability with it. Advice and consent must be sought from legal counsel, insurance carriers, and purveyors of emergency services in the development of a life-safety planning program.

Planning for the prevention of avoidable disasters and preparing for unavoidable disasters can and should be undertaken by the custodians of archive and library collections. As noted in the introduction to the SPEC KIT, a comprehensive disaster plan consists of three elements: 1) prevention through reduction of the potential for disaster; 2) preparedness to limit the effects of disasters; and 3), preparation for recovery or salvage. Effective planning of parts one and three will require consultation with building engineers, maintenance staff, and local fire and police authorities. Such discussions are an opportunity to convince these staff and other authorities that the collections are important resources worthy of protection. This involvement may lead them to feel that they are part of a team with the responsibility to protect a valuable local resource. The sense of a common and vital mission may be essential during a disaster when there is competition for emergency services. The consultation process will also usually provide invaluable information necessary for detailed planning. One

institution, for example, found that even if they had a disaster plan, the library disaster team would not be allowed in the building after a calamity. Several months of negotiation were necessary to get special permission and badges to gain entrance to the collection areas.

The introduction also makes reference to three printed resources which will aid in the planning process. Of these three reference tools, Hilda Bohem's booklet, DISASTER PREVENTION AND DISASTER PREPAREDNESS (University of California at Berkeley, 1978), is the only available disaster planning guide. The other two references are Peter Waters' PROCEDURES FOR SALVAGE OF WATER-DAMAGED LIBRARY MATERIALS (Library of Congress, 1975), and John Morris' MANAGING THE LIBRARY FIRE RISK (University of California at Berkeley, 1979). These sources are most valuable as adjuncts during the process of local disaster plan formulation.

One of the most valuable aspects of the SPEC KIT is the publication of several implemented disaster plans based on, or compatible with, Mrs. Bohem's planning guide noted above. The guide was written as a flexible model which can be adapted to local needs and resources. The use of Mrs. Bohem's document in conjunction with the implemented plans presented in the SPEC KIT from the University of Rochester, University of California, Riverside, and the National Library of Medicine should allow any archives or library to design its own disaster plan. The SPEC KIT alone is probably not sufficient to enable archives or libraries to accomplish either emergency or disaster planning, but it is certainly a necessary acquisition because of the guidance which can be obtained from the plans of the contributing institutions.

Administrative Analyst Richard G. King, Jr.
Office of the Assistant Vice President -
Library Plans and Policies
University of California Systemwide Administration
Berkeley, California

SYSTEMS AND PROCEDURES EXCHANGE CENTER: BASIC PRESERVATION PROCEDURES, KIT 70. Prepared by the Office of Management Studies, Association of Research Libraries. (Washington, D.C.: Association of Research Libraries, 1981. Pp. 1-116. Sample forms and documents. Paper. $7.50 ARL members/$15.00 others.)

The Systems and Procedures Exchange Center Kit #70, BASIC PRESERVATION PROCEDURES, is the third to result from its March 1980 survey on preservation, following #66, PLANNING FOR THE PRESERVATION OF LIBRARY MATERIALS (July-Aug 1980), and #69, PREPARING FOR EMERGENCIES AND DISASTERS (Nov-Dec 1980). Kit #70 is a compilation of twenty-six documents (116 pages) including policy statements, guidelines, and procedural instructions from universities, libraries, and conservation centers.

The purpose of the kit, as stated in the introduction, is to combat the "myth of the expensive expert." The object is to present actions a library can take to prolong the life of its collections but which do not require large sums of money or highly specialized knowledge.

Kit #70 is divided into four sections, the first being devoted to the shelving and handling of books. Discussed in this section are proper environmental controls, including temperature and humidity for books and manuscript materials; proper bookhandling, including shelving, transferral of whole collections, and book removal from shelves; and a section on consciousness-raising among patrons. Many of the suggestions presented in this section are rudimentary,

such as the need to reinforce very thin items, keep huge books flat, and leave an air space at the back of the shelves. The really creative recommendations in this section come in the Columbia University contribution on "Consciousness-Raising Among Patrons." The thrust here is to make your patrons aware of the way they handle library materials through messages printed on bookmarks.

The second section of the kit delves into actual treatment of materials which can be executed inexpensively by staff members with only basic training. This section begins with discussions of standards for materials to be used, and the screening of materials to be treated. Specific materials such as adhesives, polyvinyl acetate, board, cloth, leather, and papers are discussed in some detail, as is the meaning of "conservation binding" (p. 47). This section also contains rather in-depth treatises on matting and framing documents, polyester film encapsulation, and the treatment of leather bookbindings.

The problems and advantages of photoduplication are discussed in section 3, Preserving Information Through Reproduction. Policies followed by several repositories, including Stanford and the New York Public Library, are presented here, as are the guidelines used by Yale on the physical handling and storage of microforms. Covered in these guidelines are considerations not only for microforms, but also for lighting, humidity, temperature, and acoustics. Storage for both positive and negative service microforms is discussed in detail as are microform production and processing and printer's printers.

The last section of the kit deals with preservation decision making. Included here is a "Brittle Books Information Sheet," provided by the University of California, Berkeley, and the New York Public Library's statement of guidelines concerning the permanent retention of materials in their original formats.

The use of documents presented in their original form causes a few problems for the reader of the SPECs Kit #70. There is, for example, some repetition of information, particularly in section 1. In addition, the differences in style and in documentation from memoranda to instructional papers makes the reading a bit difficult. In spite of the problems, this kit contains valuable information and the reassurance that basic preservation need not be postponed due to a lack of funds or highly-trained staff.

Tennessee State Library and Archives — Susan Tannewitz-Karnes

REVIEWS IN BRIEF

THE JOURNAL OF THE BIRMINGHAM HISTORICAL SOCIETY. Edited by Marvin Yeomans Whiting. (Birmingham, Alabama: The Journal of the Birmingham Historical Society, 2020 Park Place, Birmingham, 35203. Subscription rate: $10 for libraries; $5 for Society members; and $6.00 for non-members. The JOURNAL is issued semi-annually).

The Volume VI, Number 4 issue of the JOURNAL OF THE BIRMINGHAM HISTORICAL SOCIETY (July, 1980) has just crossed the editor's desk. It is an impressive publication in terms of both its content and its layout. This particular issue is devoted to "Birmingham Remembered: A Decade of Change, 1910-1920," and includes articles by Michael A. Breedlove and Marvin Y. Whiting as well as a survey of location names (complete with a town map) as of June 10, 1914 edited by Alice M. Bowsher, Ann M. Burkhardt, Eva M. Holley, Mary S. Miller and Marvin Y. Whiting. The JOURNAL is an excellent reminder of the contributions of local historical societies to the preservation and greater appreciation of our material culture. Archivists

have an important part to play in these organizations and their many community activities.

AN INDEX TO GEORGIA COLONIAL CONVEYANCES AND CONFISCATED LANDS RECORDS, 1750-1804. Edited by Marilyn L. Adams. (Atlanta, Ga: R. J. Taylor, Jr., Foundation, 1981. Pp. v-97. Introduction, map, index, bibliography. Paper. $8.)

The main section of this book consists of a carefully edited, computer-generated index to the eleven-volume series of Georgia colonial conveyance (deed) books. These volumes were maintained from 1750 until 1804 and contain records of land transactions from the earliest days of the colony in the 1730's through the beginnings of the American Revolution. In addition, the series includes documents relating to the disposition of lands confiscated from Loyalists during and after the war. The index contains more than 40,000 references to the names of grantors, grantees, adjacent landowners, witnesses, and former owners mentioned in the original documents.

DATAPRO REPORTS. Prepared by Datapro Research Corporation, a McGraw-Hill Company. (Delran, NJ: Datapro Research Corporation, 1981. Loose-leaf information services, up-dated monthly or bi-monthly. From $330 to $690 for each new subscription and from $280-$635 for each renewal).

The latest trends in information management and data processing have a two-fold impact on archivists. On the one hand, the widespread use of automated systems in government, corporate, and university office environments raises special problems and new demands for archivists charged with the responsibility for managing the non-current records generated by these offices. On the other hand, this new technology affords archivists and other information

managers an opportunity to employ this new technology in their own shops. However, the archivist is hard pressed to keep up with events in EDP and manage his or her other, more traditional operations as well. DATAPRO publications offer a helpful information shortcut. Each loose-leaf series provides up-to-date information on automated systems, techniques, and programs. They cover such subjects as small computers, minicomputers, word processing, and automated office systems, and include buyer's guides, hardware and software comparisons, and vendor directories. While the cost of the DATAPRO series are high, their usefulness to administration, computer services, records management, and archival personnel may justify their aquisition as library reference tools. DATAPRO publications bring together information that is not otherwise readily available. As archivists find themselves confronted with the machine-readable records of office EDP systems, they will find much useful information in these volumes.

ARCHIVE NOTES

Publisher's Weekly announced that the Kraus-Thomson Organization, Ltd., (KTO) of Millwood, N.Y., has bought the world's most prestigious historic picture bank, The Bettman Archive, Inc., of New York City, a collection of some five million pictures. The multi-million-dollar pact was announced by Hans Peter Kraus, one of the world's leading rare book dealers and KTO chairman, and Dr. Otto L. Bettman, TBA founder and retiring chairman. Neither would discuss financial details.

The Archive supplies illustrations to such image-hungry groups as book and magazine publishers, TV broadcasters, advertising agencies, and package designers. A staff of picture librarians and researchers, backed by photography labs, word processors and computers, handle about fifty search orders a day on subjects as diverse as pie-making, marijuana, and George Washington's wooden teeth.

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"Managing Oral History Collections in the Library" is a special issue of the Drexel Library Quarterly (Vol. 15, No. 4) that considers the teamwork of librarian and archivist in making oral history materials available to users. Contributors to the issue are Carroll Hart (Georgia State Archives), F. Gerald Handfield, Jr. (Indiana State University), Mary Jo Pugh (Bentley Historical Library), Ernest J. Dick (Public Archives of Canada), Joseph B. Romney (Ricks College), Ann Kusnerz (University of Michigan). An appendix by Dale Treleven illustrates the electronic tape retrieval system developed at the State Historical Society of Wisconsin. M. Patricia Freedman, sound archivist and current doctoral candidate at the University of Michigan, is the guest

editor for the issue.

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Illinois Libraries, a publication of the Illinois State Library, has devoted two of its issues in 1981 to an in-depth discussion of archival repositories in the "Land of Lincoln." Pat Quinn, archivist for Northwestern University, is special guest editor for this splendid survey which archivists in other states would be well advised to emulate.

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The National Historical Publications and Records Commission and Yale University sponsored the Yale University Archives and Record Survey from October, 1978 to March, 1980. The report on this project, entitled Planning and Organizing a Joint Archives and Records Management Program, has been published by the Department of Manuscripts and Archives of the Yale University Library. This ambitious project provides a good model for new college and university archives, since the study was undertaken at the beginning of the period of development of the Yale University Archives.

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The State Historical Society of Wisconsin and the Samuel Gompers Papers documentary publication project at the University of Maryland and Pace University recently completed microfilm publication of The American Federation of Labor Records: The Samuel Gompers Era. This publication includes 144 reels of microfilm and an attractive guide complete with a well-written introductory narrative, photographs, and a reel-by-reel listing of collection contents. The

total cost of the series is $4200; individual reels are $50. Interested parties may contact the Microfilming Corporation of America, 1620 Hawkins Ave., P.O. Box 10, Sanford, NC. The guide may be purchased separately for $5 from the State Historical Society of Wisconsin.

* * * * *

The Charles Babbage Institute for the History of Information Processing, at the University of Minnesota, is conducting a nationwide survey of 14,000 archival, governmental, and industrial institutions to determine if they hold records and artifacts that document the technical and socio-economic development of information processing. Institutions are invited to submit general information on archives or manuscript holdings that contain historical source materials related to information processing. Computer corporations and allied industries are requested to provide a brief overview of the types of computer-related records generated and maintained by individual companies.

The Charles Babbage Institute will use the preliminary data gathered in the mail survey to evaluate current practices in science and technology documentation and to alert librarians, archivists, and computer professionals to the importance of preserving historical resources in the field of information processing. The Institute's long-range plans also include publishing the results of the survey as a reference guide designed for students and scholars interested in the historical development of information processing.

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Mr. James E. Warren, historian of The Lovett School in Atlanta, Georgia, has completed a survey of the historical records held by private secondary

schools throughout the United States. Not surprisingly, Mr. Warren found great variation in the care with which these schools preserved their history. For more information, contact Mr. James E. Warren, Jr., 544 Deering Road, NW, Atlanta, GA 30309.

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Greenbelt, Maryland: A Guide to Further Sources by Mary Boccaccio, Steven Lambird, and Carolyn Salus is now available from the Archives and Manuscripts Department, McKeldin Library, University, College Park, Maryland 20742 for $5. The guide includes a summary of blueprints, tracings, and drawings microfilmed by the library under a grant from the National Endowment for the Humanities and a guide to other sources of information about Greenbelt in the Washington, D.C. area.

* * * * *

The Archives of Appalachia at East Tennessee State University has published a Guide to Audio and Video Recordings available in their collection. The guide includes descriptions and listings of the repository's audio and video collections and indexes to the collection by speaker, performer, song, and subject.

* * * * *

The Pennsylvania Historical Museum Collection recently published the Guide to the Microfilm Collections in the Pennsylvania State Archives. The guide was compiled and edited by Roland M. Baumann and Diane S. Wallace. The records on film listed in this volume total 1,460 negative and 2,714 positive reels and include both state and personal records and papers from the colonial period to the present. Each

guide description includes collection title and ID number, span dates, number of rolls, a brief content note, repository location, and an indication of film format (i.e., positive or negative). The index is not extensive, but it is serviceable.

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As part of its government records program, the Ohio Historical Society recently published the Ohio Municipal Records Manual to provide guidelines for officials responsible for city and village records. The book includes an explanation of the elements of a records management program; fifteen chapters, corresponding to function divisions of municipal governments, which present suggested retention periods for records series usually found in each division in columnar format; samples of completed retention schedules and microfilm targets; and relevant portions of Ohio law. Although created for use by Ohio governments, the manual would be useful to any municipality. Copies are available from the Ohio Historical Society for $5.

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On May 30, 1981, the recently-formed Archives and Special Collections Roundtable of the South Carolina Library Association held its first workshop at the Winthrop College Archives and Special Collections. The workshop, entitled, "Organizing Archival Collections: A Basic Workshop," was geared towards librarians, archivists, and others responsible for supervising or establishing an archives in a library or other institution, who have had little training or experience in archival principles or practices. Archivists from various repositories in South Carolina gave presentations on a variety of subjects including arrangement and description, genealogy, conservation and security, oral history, and exhibits.

INFORMATION FOR CONTRIBUTORS

Editorial Policy

1. Members of the Society of Georgia Archivists, and others with professional interest in the aims of the Society, are invited to submit manuscripts for consideration and to suggest areas of concern or subjects which they feel should be included in forthcoming issues of GEORGIA ARCHIVE.

2. Manuscripts received from contributors are submitted to an editorial board. Editors are asked to appraise manuscripts in terms of appropriateness, pertinence, innovativeness, scholarly worth, and clarity of writing.

3. Only manuscripts not previously published will be accepted, and authors must agree not to publish elsewhere, without explicit written permission, a paper submitted to and accepted by GEORGIA ARCHIVE.

4. Two copies of GEORGIA ARCHIVE will be provided to the author without charge.

5. Letters to the Editor which include pertinent and constructive comments or criticism of articles or reviews recently published in GEORGIA ARchive are welcome. Ordinarily, such letters should not exceed 300 words.

5. Brief contributions for the special sections of GEORGIA ARCHIVE--News Notes and Accessions--may be addressed to the editors of those sections or to Box 261, Georgia State University, Atlanta, GA 30303.

Manuscript Requirements

1. Manuscripts should be submitted in double-spaced typescripts throughout--including footnotes at the end of the text--on white bond paper 8½ x 11 inches in size. Margins should be about 1½ inches all around. All pages should be numbered, including the title page. The author's name and address should appear only on the title page, which should be separate from the main text of the manuscript.

2. Each manuscript should be submitted in two copies, the original typescript and one carbon copy or durable photocopy.

3. The title of the paper should be concise, accurate, and distinctive rather than merely descriptive.

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6. Usage of terms which have special meanings for archivists, manuscript curators, and record managers should conform to the definitions in "A Basic Glossary for Archivists, Manuscript Curators, and Records Managers," American Archivist 37, no. 3 (July 1974). Copies of this glossary are available for $2 each from the Executive Director, SAA, University of Illinois at Chicago Circle, Box 8198, Chicago IL 60680.

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